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## Editor's Page

### THE CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION PROJECT

THE Citizenship Education Project, which is centered at Columbia University's Teachers College and financed by a Carnegie Corporation grant of some \$1,500,000, has now been operating for about eighteen months. And like the snowball that grows as it rolls, the Citizenship Education Project is growing. It began on a small scale with only one teacher in each of eight high schools near New York and Philadelphia. These schools ranged from suburban New York "privileged" types to industrial community schools as far away from metropolitan New York as Pennsylvania's steel towns.

Today the Project counts more than four times the number of teachers in each of the eight original schools and more than 125 cooperating school systems reaching from new England to Florida and westward to California and Washington. New York City and Buffalo, Oklahoma City, St. Louis, Dallas, and Portland, Oregon, are among the collaborating school systems; and so is Arvada, Colorado, and many another like town or small city. The state of Illinois with twenty-seven collaborating high schools, Nebraska with twenty-five, and Tennessee with a three-way program under the general administration of the George Peabody College for Teachers are all trying out the program and materials devised by the Citizenship Education Project.

Moreover, representatives of the Army, Navy, and Air Force have been steadily at work this past spring with members of the Citizenship Education Project Staff developing a citizenship education program that is to become part of the basic training for every young American who enters the armed services. And all collaborators apparently are gathering force as they devise ways and means to move from the printed page to participation in democratic activity, from verbalism to real responsibility and practice.

AN EXTRAORDINARY thing about this forward-looking and expanding contribution to citizenship education is that here we see nothing really new, nothing untried, nothing

that excellent teachers have not been doing since Socrates disturbed the Athenian *status quo*. How did the Project get started?

The 1949 report of the President of the Carnegie Corporation singled out the problem of education for citizenship as one of critical importance, and virtually challenged educators to come forward with a practicable proposal for doing something about it. President Russell of Teachers College and General Eisenhower, President of Columbia University, were ready with an answer. They proposed no panacea, no sure-fire remedy; but they did insist that young Americans needed real laboratory experience in democratic practices; that today the voters of tomorrow need to learn first-hand how to use the tools that democracy provides for the adjustment of our political, economic, and social machinery. They pointed to past experiences and studies made of citizenship education; they argued that vicarious experience—good so far as it can go—is not enough. So they proposed a concrete program. In itself the program is the essence of directness and simplicity. You pick out the most effective practices proven by the best teachers. These practices you make available to all teachers everywhere. This much was simple; this much was clear; this much was sound. But where were the best teachers with the most effective practices, and how could these techniques be made available to other teachers? To this search the Project Staff addressed itself.

This quest is well under way. Thousands of practices have been screened, and the few that have sifted through the fine netting of criteria have been tried out in actual classroom situations. Planning tools have been developed to help teachers put these practices to use. And this process continues: the discovery and selection of techniques, their screening, their application under varying conditions and circumstances, and their presentation in a form readily adaptable to varying classroom conditions.

At first the program was limited to eleventh- and twelfth-grade social studies; not because here was necessarily the best place to begin, but

because the field is so broad that immediate limits were necessary. Accordingly a number of Laboratory Practice Descriptions were tried out in the cooperating schools; twenty-six of these Descriptions met the test of use. Planning tools, demonstrating the relationship of these practices to American history and problems of democracy courses and to the tenets of democracy were devised. A unique card index of graded, annotated readings was developed. This card index gives teachers easy access to hundreds of items of teaching material, thus providing a wider area of choice than is available through textbooks.

During the past school year Laboratory Practice Descriptions, planning tools, and the card index have been in use in all of the collaborating schools, have been tested, and are now being revised. By September more Laboratory Practice Descriptions will be available, the card index will have been thoroughly revised and enlarged, and planning tools will have been devised for junior and senior high school teachers of English, science, and social studies. Developments at the elementary school are planned for later.

Meanwhile, a comprehensive program of evaluation has been developed by specialists on the Project Staff. Attitudes and skills are being tested; and so is course content, by means of control and experimental groups in each collaborating school.

**D**URING the coming year the Project will widen greatly the scope of its program. But it will not attempt to tell teachers what to teach or how to teach; the Project believes in the principle of autonomy—it advocates no new courses. It wants to meet teachers and classroom situations as they are; it hopes to help teachers who are already doing a good job to do it better.

By September of this year, probably there will

be between 300 and 500 school systems in active collaboration with the project, each of which will have made formal arrangements with the Citizenship Education Project and will have sent a teacher to an orientation workshop designed to help teachers become acquainted with how to use the Project tools. More teacher-training institutions will join with the 30 now participating. And it seems likely that liberal arts colleges will soon be joining up in this enterprise in political, economic, and social citizenship.

The rapid expansion of the Citizenship Education Project among schools and colleges makes necessary a number of regional centers throughout the country. These regional headquarters will be set up and staffed this summer and will be ready to serve the schools and colleges of the several regions during the coming academic year. The Project adheres firmly to the principle of local control of education and is attempting to establish a decentralized and locally-controlled administration of a type appropriate to an effort to improve education for citizenship.

There probably has never been so broad a program; and if enthusiasm, comprehensive planning, to say nothing of adequate financial support, are significant, the Project seems destined to be fruitful. During the coming year, therefore, in these pages there will be a series of articles reporting on the activities of the Citizenship Education Project. These articles will go into considerable detail concerning techniques and methods, materials, and testing and evaluation. The goal of the Project is to strengthen citizenship by giving students knowledge of the principles of American democracy, attitudes that affirm these principles, and the skills needful in applying these principles and attitudes in daily conduct—aims that all teachers will heartily applaud.

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One organization that has been uniquely successful in producing materials for citizenship training is the Public Affairs Committee which celebrates its fifteenth anniversary this month. During these fifteen years the Committee has produced 170 pamphlets with a total circulation of seventeen and a half million. Among the pamphlets produced by this organization, of particular value in building and strengthening our democratic ideals are *Races of Mankind* by Ruth Benedict and Gene Weltfish; *What About Communism?* by Arthur Schlesinger, Jr.; *Can Labor and Management Work Together?* by Osgood Nichols and T. R. Carskadon; *These Rights Are Ours to Keep* by Jerome Ellison; and *New Threats to American Freedoms* by Robert E. Cushman. As an innovation the Public Affairs Committee has introduced two notable picture pamphlets during the past year. One, *This Land of Ours* by Maxwell S. Stewart, deals with conservation of our natural resources; the second, *In These Ten Cities by Alexander Crosby*, dramatizes the problem of racial segregation in housing. During its fifteenth anniversary year the Committee is planning to devote itself even more directly to citizenship training with pamphlets on *Loyalty in a Democracy* and on *How to Be an Effective Citizen*. May its next fifteen years prove even more fruitful.

# Recent Scholarship and Interpretations in American History

Carlton C. Qualey

TO VENTURE an evaluation of the post-World War II publications in American history is hazardous at best and to discuss all such publications is manifestly impossible. What is attempted in this brief essay must therefore be an appraisal of selected writings in American history published since the field was last surveyed in the Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies.<sup>1</sup>

A few preliminary observations should perhaps be made. Thanks to the liberal allowances to veterans by the federal government and the states, enrollments in graduate schools have been large, but relatively few dissertations and essays have found their way into print. Many of those published were started before war service and were completed after the writer's return to civilian life. The generation of historians that would normally have come to maturity in the 1940's is only now getting under way professionally, and there were many casualties, both in war service and in diversion of interests and energies to other fields. Much of the published writing in American history has, therefore, been by older, established historians.

Publication in American history has been increasingly limited by rising costs which are approaching prohibitive levels. These costs are in turn reflected in high prices for books, with the result that library purchases have been reduced and individual buying—certainly by teachers with their fixed incomes—has been severely cut. Rising costs have especially affected the publication of learned monographs which do not com-

mand large public sale. Publishers—even the university presses—require substantial guarantees before considering a manuscript. Despite costs, however, the volume of publication has been impressive and many of the newer writings have been highly significant.

## TEXTBOOKS AND SOURCEBOOKS

ALTHOUGH textbooks and sourcebooks would seem to provide limited opportunities for new interpretations, an unusual number of such books have appeared, and some of them present stimulating approaches to the teaching of American history. This is especially true of those published at the college level. For style of writing and thoroughness of coverage, the two-volume Morison and Commager textbook leads the field,<sup>2</sup> but the newly published Curti-Shryock-Cochran-Harrington volumes<sup>3</sup> include such strikingly original maps that they deserve commendation on that score alone without mention of their simplicity of style and rearrangement of period coverage to make the break between volumes at 1877 rather than at 1865. Three single-volume textbooks that merit special mention are those by Billington-Loewenberg-Brockunier; Harlow; and Craven-Johnson.<sup>4</sup> The latter two follow the more conventional pattern, while the former attempts some reapportionment of

<sup>1</sup> Gambrill, J. Montgomery, ed., of Section 2, "Newer Interpretations and Emphases in American History." *The Study and Teaching of American History*, edited by Richard E. Thursfield. 17th Yearbook. Washington: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1946.

<sup>2</sup> Morison, Samuel Eliot, and Commager, Henry Steele. *The Growth of the American Republic*. 2 vols. New York: Oxford University Press, 1950.

<sup>3</sup> Curti, Merle, Shryock, Richard H., Cochran, Thomas C., and Harrington, Fred Harvey. *An American History*. 2 vols. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950.

<sup>4</sup> Billington, Ray Allen, Loewenberg, Bert James, and Brockunier, Samuel Hugh. *The United States: American Democracy in World Perspective*. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1947. Harlow, Ralph V. *The United States: From Wilderness to World Power*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1949. And Craven, Avery, and Johnson, Walter. *The United States: Experiment in Democracy*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1947.

With this thoughtful appraisal of recent scholarship in the field of American history, the author makes an important contribution to the National Council's series of newer interpretations in the social sciences. Reprints of this and other articles in the series may be secured for ten cents from the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D.C.

Dr. Qualey is professor of American history at Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.



materials and stresses more intellectual and social history. Another, by Rae and Mahoney, attempts to combine European and American history in one volume.<sup>5</sup> Although some correlation is achieved, integration is not, and what results is too limited treatment of either field.

GREATER originality has been achieved in the new sourcebooks, and it is a welcome development indeed. The usefulness of Commager's volume of documents continues,<sup>6</sup> but the readings and documents in Louis M. Hacker's *The Shaping of the American Tradition*,<sup>7</sup> with emphasis on economic and social aspects, are equally important. Highly useful is the new Heath series, *Problems in American Civilization*, prepared by the American Studies Staff of Amherst College.<sup>8</sup> Fourteen of these small, paper-bound volumes have now appeared, each dealing with a significant area of interpretation or controversy in American history. Each volume contains both contemporary source material and the best modern essays on the subject of the volume, and there is a selected bibliography. The treatment lends itself to class or discussion group use, and the volumes are invaluable supplements to any textbook.

Another new approach to source material is to be found in the two volumes edited by Thomas G. Manning and David Potter entitled *Nationalism and Sectionalism in America, 1775-1877*, and *Government and the American Economy, 1870 to the Present*.<sup>9</sup> These divide American history into a series of basic problems which serve to draw together some of the main themes of American history. The emphasis is upon economic and social issues. With excellent introductions to the several problems, with unusually fine selection of illustrative material, and with comprehensive coverage made possible by large, double-columned pages, the Manning-Potter sourcebook provides one of the most useful workbooks now available. Although a two-volume, paper-covered and inexpensive sourcebook was edited to accompany the Billington-Loewenberg-Brockunier textbook, it is exceptionally well-selected and could be used with any text-

book.<sup>10</sup> More specialized in field are Alpheus T. Mason's volume of readings in American political thought,<sup>11</sup> M. DeWolfe Howe's book of *Readings in American Legal History*,<sup>12</sup> and R. J. Bartlett's *Record of American Diplomacy*.<sup>13</sup> An entirely different type of book is the two-volume *Making of American History*, edited by Donald Sheehan.<sup>14</sup> In these volumes are collected "classic" treatments of the more important chapters of American history. The chief merit of the work is that these superb essays are thus made easily available to students. Still another type of sourcebook are the volumes of selections from the writings of foreign travelers in America, of which two excellent new collections have been published and an earlier one reissued in a new edition.<sup>15</sup> Most recent of the sourcebooks is the attractive collection of Civil War materials by H. S. Commager, *The Blue and the Gray*.<sup>16</sup>

THE publication of a number of studies in the field of American historiography calls attention to a somewhat neglected field. One such work is Mason Wade's *The Journals of Francis Parkman*.<sup>17</sup> Including much material previously undiscovered, this collection fills out the Parkman story and makes this greatest of American historians even more interesting. Donald Emerson's biography of *Richard Hildreth* reinterprets an older historian whose writings are still worth reading.<sup>18</sup> The encyclopedic compilations of Hubert Howe Bancroft receive sympathetic but critical treatment from John W. Caughey.<sup>19</sup> A volume that belongs in both the field of historiography and that of immigration is Edward N. Saveth's *American Historians and European Immigrants, 1875-1925*.<sup>20</sup>

<sup>5</sup> *The Making of American Democracy*. 2 vols. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1950.

<sup>11</sup> *Free Government in the Making: Readings in American Political Thought*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1949.

<sup>12</sup> Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949.

<sup>13</sup> New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1947.

<sup>14</sup> New York: Dryden Press, 1950.

<sup>15</sup> Handlin, Oscar, ed. *This Was America*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949. Commager, Henry Steele, ed. *America in Perspective: The United States Through Foreign Eyes*. New York: Random House, 1947. And Nevins, Allan, ed. *American Through British Eyes*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1948. The latter is a new edition, revised, of *American Social History as Recorded by British Travellers* (1923).

<sup>16</sup> 2 vols. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1950.

<sup>17</sup> New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947.

<sup>18</sup> Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1946.

<sup>19</sup> *Hubert Howe Bancroft*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1946.

<sup>20</sup> New York: Columbia University Press, 1948.

<sup>5</sup> Rae, John B., and Mahoney, Thomas W. D. *The United States in World History*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949.

<sup>6</sup> Commager, Henry Steele. *Documents of American History*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948.

<sup>7</sup> New York: Columbia University Press, 1947.

<sup>8</sup> Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1948, 1950.

<sup>9</sup> New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1949, 1950.

which examines the race prejudices of some historians who probably should have known better. Current appraisals of the frontier theories of Frederick Jackson Turner are conveniently assembled in one of the pamphlets of the Heath series mentioned above.<sup>21</sup>

#### THE COLONIAL PERIOD TO 1865

FOR the colonial period of American history, the successive volumes of Laurence H. Gipson's *The British Empire Before the American Revolution* continue to be outstanding. The seventh volume, entitled *The Great War for the Empire: The Victorious Years, 1758-1760*, appeared in 1949.<sup>22</sup> Gipson's volumes do not supersede Parkman nor are they so intended. They do include the great body of material that has become available since Parkman's day. The approach is of course from quite a different direction. Whereas Parkman's concern was primarily with the French empire in America, Gipson's is with the British empire. A large part of this seventh volume is devoted to the campaigns of the war in America, and there are some changes of interpretation, especially in a more critical analysis of Wolfe's handling of the Quebec operations.

Two volumes on America in the seventeenth century deserve special mention. W. F. Craven's *The Southern Colonies in the Seventeenth Century, 1607-1689*<sup>23</sup> is the first volume of a projected ten-volume History of the South. As might be expected of the author of the principal monograph on the Virginia Company, the history of Virginia is emphasized in this new volume. Except for minor corrections, there are no major changes in interpretation. Another stimulating volume is that by R. J. Wertenbaker, *The Puritan Oligarchy*,<sup>24</sup> in which a Virginian looks at seventeenth century New England. He has produced one of the most readable and entertaining volumes now available on New England.

The Institute for Early American History and Culture, Williamsburg, Virginia, has become one of the principal promoters of research and publication in the field of colonial history. Perhaps its most significant activity has been the support of the revived and revised *William and Mary Quarterly*, now the leading periodical for publication of essays and book reviews on colonial

history. Among the many publications sponsored by the Institute, one of the more noteworthy is a volume by Abbot Emerson Smith, *Colonists in Bondage: White Servitude and Convict Labor in America, 1607-1776*.<sup>25</sup> The volume is an expansion of this Rhodes Scholar's doctoral dissertation at Oxford University, and contains the results of research work on both sides of the Atlantic, including the West Indies. For the first time we have an adequate account of the convicts, redemptioners, and indentured servants of the colonial period. The size and importance of this great labor force is brought out, and much of the human interest element vividly presented.

The first general study of American and European civilization in the eighteenth century has been produced by Michael Kraus under the title *The Atlantic Civilization: Eighteenth Century Origins*.<sup>26</sup> Based on extensive original research as well as upon the many monographic studies in the field, Professor Kraus' book organizes a difficult and enormous area of knowledge. Although not written in an inspired style, it contains a wealth of information.

FOR the period of the Revolutionary generation, a highly significant new volume has recently been published, Merrill Jensen's *The New Nation: A History of the United States During the Confederation, 1781-1789*.<sup>27</sup> A careful reading of this book is essential to adequate understanding of the period of the 1780's. Professor Jensen effectively disposes of the John Fiske foisted myth of a critical period and demonstrates instead that the nation was moving unmistakably toward economic strength and political stability, one stage of which was to be the making of the Constitution. In other words, in place of the concept of order arising from a chaotic decade, the newer interpretation is that of gradual development of the nation and thoughtful evolution of political theories. The two principal groups of theorists, the "federalists" and the "nationalists," are clearly analyzed. The book brings new life into a heavily worked period. Professor Jensen's general conclusions are worth quoting:<sup>28</sup>

If the history of the Confederation has anything to offer us, it is the realistic approach to politics so widely held by the political leaders of the time, however much they might differ as to forms of government and desirable goals

<sup>21</sup> Taylor, G. R., ed. *The Turner Thesis*. Boston: D.C. Heath and Co., 1949.

<sup>22</sup> New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1949.

<sup>23</sup> Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1949.

<sup>24</sup> Volume III of *The Founding of American Civilization*. New York: Scribner's Sons, 1947.

<sup>25</sup> Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1947.

<sup>26</sup> Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1949.

<sup>27</sup> New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950.

<sup>28</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 428.

for the new nation. Throughout the Confederation men with rival goals pushed two programs simultaneously. The federalists tried to strengthen the Articles of Confederation; the nationalists tried to create a new constitution by means of a convention, and thus avoid the method of change prescribed by the Articles of Confederation. The movement to strengthen the Articles failed on the verge of success; the movement to call a convention succeeded on the verge of failure. The failure of one movement and the success of the other, however we may interpret them, is one of the dramatic stories in the history of politics.

THE next period to receive new treatment in the past few years is that from 1847 to 1861 in the four monumental volumes by Allan Nevins entitled *The Ordeal of the Union* and *The Emergence of Lincoln*.<sup>29</sup> These volumes supersede all previous accounts of this period and they are required reading. Professor Nevins presents a vast panorama of the mid-century years, incredibly detailed yet written in a most attractive style. Although there are, inevitably, parts of the picture that are not filled in as fully as others, notably on immigration, the general impression is one of tremendous scope and range of coverage. Particularly full is the account of the intricate political maneuverings and controversies of the late forties and the fifties, but equal attention is given to social and intellectual life, constitutional aspects, diplomatic developments, and the innumerable personalities who lent color to this exuberant era. The main theme of the volume is the growing separation of interests and loyalties of the North and South. Slavery is again brought to the fore as the principal factor in the separation. The four volumes are significant not so much for revolutionary new interpretations as for more complete coverage of almost all aspects of a controversial and dynamic period. More narrowly conceived but equally brilliant is Roy F. Nichols' *The Disruption of the American Democracy*.<sup>30</sup> Professor Nichols dissects the Democratic Party of the late 1850's and shows the devastating effects of the breakdown of the two-party system. Particularly striking is the use of psychological as well as economic and political approaches to understanding of the fevered years from 1856 to 1861.

Except for textbook surveys, such as the new edition of Hacker and Kendrick, *The United States Since 1865*,<sup>31</sup> and a few special volumes on the period since 1900, none presenting significant

new interpretations, no new survey of importance has appeared for the period since 1865.

#### ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL HISTORY

THE general field of economic and social history has been heavily cultivated. Three volumes of a new economic history of the United States have appeared.<sup>32</sup> The first to appear, volume five in the series, is by Fred A. Shannon and is entitled *The Farmer's Last Frontier: Agriculture, 1860-1897*. Volume eight in the series is George Soule's *Prosperity Decade from War to Depression, 1917-1929*, and it is followed by Broadus Mitchell's *Depression Decade from New Era Through New Deal, 1929-1941*. These attractively published and well-written volumes demonstrate in their authors not only competence as historians but thorough knowledge as economists. Professor Shannon states his theme thus (p. viii): "Before 1860 farming, for the most part, had passed beyond the subsistence phase and had become commercial. In the next forty years agriculture reached out to its last frontier within the limits of the ultimate forty-eight states. The effects of this movement, and the reactions of farmers and herdsmen to their restricted migrations when there were no longer any large new areas to occupy with any reasonable hope of success, had their influence on agriculture, and on the whole economy, throughout the nation." Perhaps because of the recency of the periods covered by volumes eight and nine, the interpretations are more cautious and less significant than those presented by Professor Shannon.

To be read along with Broadus Mitchell's volume on the 1930's is the concluding volume in *The History of American Life*, the late Dixon Wecter's *The Age of the Great Depression, 1929-1941*.<sup>33</sup> Although this volume is not one of the best in the series, it deals effectively with the mass of social and intellectual material of the Hoover-Roosevelt era, and rounds out a distinguished publication venture.

TWO important studies on the history of transportation have been published recently: Edward C. Kirkland's *Men, Cities and Transportation: A Study in New England History, 1820-1900*,<sup>34</sup> and Louis C. Hunter's *Steamboats*

<sup>29</sup> New York: Scribner's Sons, 1947, 1950.

<sup>30</sup> New York: Macmillan Co., 1948.

<sup>31</sup> Hacker, L. M., Kendrick, B. B., and Zahler, H. S. *The United States Since 1865*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1949.

<sup>32</sup> David, Henry, and others, eds. *The Economic History of the United States*. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1945, 1947, 1947.

<sup>33</sup> New York: Macmillan Co., 1948.

<sup>34</sup> 2 vols. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press, 1948.



on the Western Rivers: An Economic and Technological History.<sup>35</sup> Both works, the former dealing primarily with the development of the railroads of New England and the latter with the Mississippi and Ohio steamboat traffic, are encyclopedic in scope and thoroughness, and both deserve the adjective "definitive."

An important study on the history of banking and commerce has been produced by Ralph W. Hidy, *The House of Baring in American Trade and Finance: English Merchant Bankers at Work, 1763-1861*.<sup>36</sup> The main theme is the role of Baring Brothers in financing American trade and in selling American securities. The story is told in almost too great detail, but the material is so important that it is perhaps well that the book was not cut.

Another pioneer study is that on the oil industry of the Southwest by Carl Coke Rister entitled *Oil! Titan of the Southwest*.<sup>37</sup> Heavily fortified with statistics and facts, the volume is perhaps more useful as a reference work than for general reading, but it is the first volume that tells the whole amazing story in a scholarly fashion.

Several volumes relating to the Upper Midwest deserve special mention: Agnes M. Larson's study of the white pine industry of Minnesota;<sup>38</sup> Kenneth Bjork's significant pioneer study of the Norwegian engineers in the American industrial revolution;<sup>39</sup> Merrill E. Jarchow's volume on the first fifty years of the agricultural history of Minnesota;<sup>40</sup> and Theodore C. Blegen's two volumes of essays, *Grass Roots History* and *The Land Lies Open*.<sup>41</sup> The latter essays on a wide variety of subjects related generally to the upper Mississippi regions reflect the author's conviction that "The pivot of history is not the uncommon, but the usual, and the true makers of history are 'the people, yes,'" and that "We need to dig into the folk story of America if we are to bring out the pattern of American development and American culture in all its color and richness of texture and design."<sup>42</sup>

<sup>35</sup> Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949.

<sup>36</sup> Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949.

<sup>37</sup> Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1949.

<sup>38</sup> *The White Pine Industry of Minnesota*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1949.

<sup>39</sup> *Saga in Steel and Concrete: Norwegian Engineers in America*. Northfield, Minn.: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1947.

<sup>40</sup> *The Earth Brought Forth*. St. Paul: Minnesota Historical Society, 1949.

<sup>41</sup> Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1947, 1949.

<sup>42</sup> *Ibid.*, *Grass Roots History*. p. vii and viii.

ALTHOUGH the field of immigration is now experiencing a renaissance of interest which in time will result in a number of new monographs, there has been relatively little by way of really important publication in this field during the past few years. A notable exception to this generalization is to be found in the publications of the Norwegian-American Historical Association which in 1950 completed 25 years of publication with a record of 33 volumes, all edited by Theodore C. Blegen. Its publications should serve as models and inspirations for other immigrant-American historical organizations. One of the major disappointments of the field of immigration has been the volumes entitled *The Peoples of America Series*.<sup>43</sup> With only one or two exceptions, these volumes do not measure up to the standards of good history. Of genuine value, however, is the new study of American negroes by John Hope Franklin.<sup>44</sup>

Some of the most entertaining volumes in the general field of social and economic history have been certain volumes of *The Rivers of America Series* (Rinehart and Co.), the *American Lakes Series* (Bobbs-Merrill Co.), and the *American Trails Series* (Bobbs-Merrill Co.). Especially notable have been the five books on the Great Lakes, and the volume by Philip Jordan on *The National Road*.<sup>45</sup> The latter is a model study of its kind.

A number of new and exciting books have appeared in the field of the history of the westward movement. Bernard De Voto's *Across the Wide Missouri*,<sup>46</sup> with its marvellous reproductions of drawings and paintings by Alfred Miller, Charles Bodmer, and Gorge Catlin, brings the trans-Mississippi West to life. Highly useful is the new textbook on the history of the frontier by Ray Billington entitled *Westward Expansion*.<sup>47</sup> The mass of information conveniently assembled in this book makes it indispensable. Its tremendous bibliography—77 double-columned pages—is the most complete available. The new volume by Everett Dick on *The Dixie Frontier*<sup>48</sup> maintains the same standards set in his earlier studies of the frontiers of the sod-house region. Dick's theme follows fairly closely the Turner interpretation. Among the more important stud-

<sup>43</sup> Adamic, Louis, ed. Philadelphia. J. B. Lippincott, Co.

<sup>44</sup> *From Slavery to Freedom: A History of American Negroes*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1947.

<sup>45</sup> Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1948.

<sup>46</sup> Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947.

<sup>47</sup> New York: Macmillan Co., 1949.

<sup>48</sup> New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1948.

ies of the West is one that may be classified also as intellectual history: Henry Nash Smith's *Virgin Land: The American West as Symbol and Myth*.<sup>49</sup> In this volume is presented for the first time an adequate analysis of the theme of the West in our literature and thought.

#### INTELLECTUAL HISTORY

PROBABLY the most active of the newer fields of American history has been that of intellectual history. Although we still await a general history of American thought to take the place of the brilliant but somewhat out-of-date volumes by V. L. Parrington, a number of books have appeared that will have enduring value. Both historians and students of American literature will have frequent occasion to give thanks for the three-volume set edited by Robert Spiller and his associates, *Literary History of the United States*.<sup>50</sup> The bibliography volume is worth the price of the whole set, and the essays in the first two volumes, though uneven in quality, are generally excellent. Inevitably, in a multi-authored work, there is no connecting theme for the entire series of essays. Useful with this new literary history is the older set of source-books edited by Willard L. Thorp, Merle Curti, and Carlos Baker entitled *American Issues*.<sup>51</sup> The only other recent work covering a large segment of the field of intellectual history is Henry Steele Commager's *The American Mind*, dealing with the period from about 1880 to 1950.<sup>52</sup> The book is uneven in quality, but deals brilliantly with theorists such as William James, Lester Ward, and the leaders of American jurisprudence. Professor Commager states his main theme: "The far from inarticulate major premise of my investigation is that there is a distinctively American way of thought, character, and conduct."

THREE special volumes of high merit make contributions to the intellectual history of the past century: Morton J. White's *Social Thought in America: The Revolt Against Formalism*,<sup>53</sup> Philip P. Wiener's *Evolution and the Founders of Pragmatism*,<sup>54</sup> and Henry F. May's *Protestant Churches and Industrial America*.<sup>55</sup> The first, White's book, pulls together the sources and origins of the writings of John Dewey, Oliver

Wendell Holmes, Jr., Thorstein Veblen, Charles A. Beard, and James Harvey Robinson. Wiener's book is a somewhat specialized study of the sources of pragmatism. May deals with the impact of industrialism upon the Protestant churches and the resulting movements of adaptation to social reform needs and of departure from exclusive concern with theology.

For the early periods of American intellectual history we have Harvey Wish's *Society and Thought in Early America: A Social and Intellectual History of the American People to 1865*, of which the first volume has just been published.<sup>56</sup> This is primarily a factual survey with some attempt at interpretation. Highly useful are the three massive volumes on *Church and State in the United States* by A. P. Stokes.<sup>57</sup> Scholars will forever be in debt to Stokes for this thorough investigation of one of the most controversial issues of our day. Another volume that should be mentioned is Oliver W. Larkin's *Art and Life in America*, a recent Pulitzer prize winner.<sup>58</sup> The author has succeeded to a remarkable degree in showing the origins of American art in American life and history.

#### OTHER AREAS

IN THE field of American constitutional history an excellent general history has appeared, that by A. H. Kelly and W. A. Harbison entitled *The American Constitution: Its Origins and Development*.<sup>59</sup> In style, breadth of coverage, and scholarship, it now leads the field. Except for some experimentation with short case-books,<sup>60</sup> few other works of importance in this field have appeared.

The production of volumes on the operations of the armed forces in World War II goes on apace. To attempt a survey of the large number of such volumes already published would require more time and space than is available in this brief survey. However, it may be stated that no previous war has had such careful coverage, and we will eventually have a magnificent record of America's part in World War II.

(Continued on page 238)

<sup>49</sup> New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1950.

<sup>50</sup> New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.

<sup>51</sup> New York: Rinehart and Co., 1949.

<sup>52</sup> New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1948.

<sup>53</sup> Fairman, Charles. *American Constitutional Decisions*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1948. Post C. G., DeLancy, F. P., and Darvy, F. R., eds. *Basic Constitutional Cases*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1948. And R. G. Cushman, ed. *Leading Constitutional Decisions*. Eighth edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946.

<sup>49</sup> Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1950.

<sup>50</sup> 3 vols. New York: Macmillan Co., 1949.

<sup>51</sup> Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1941, 1944.

<sup>52</sup> New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1950.

<sup>53</sup> New York: Viking Press, 1949.

<sup>54</sup> Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949.

<sup>55</sup> New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.

# Teaching World History to Poor Readers

Helen McCracken Carpenter

**M**ANY social studies teachers struggling to interpret world history to poor readers feel they have witnessed the irresistible force meeting the immovable object. In the classroom, as in nature, an impasse too often results. The combination presents one of the most challenging opportunities a social studies teacher can face.

On the one hand, the course is the most difficult in the whole social studies curriculum. World history may cover all of time and all of space. Yet it cannot, actually, in any classroom and still have meaning for adolescents. Hence the selection and organization of learning experiences are of paramount importance. At the same time the possibilities for choice are almost myriad. Likewise problems in the location of suitable materials and the use of effective teaching methods loom large in a course of such scope. Since the purpose of a world history course is to extend the horizons of students outward and backward into the unknown, more of the learning has to be vicarious than is necessary in American history, problems of American democracy, civics, or geography. And the most common avenue to vicarious experience is *reading*.

On the other hand, there is the poor reader. At the tenth-grade level, faulty reading habits do not represent a new manifestation or development. Rather, such a pupil is a seasoned veteran of many frustrations with reference to reading all along his educational way. He brings with him the attitudes that in time accompany repeated failure to achieve through reading. Thus the dilemma is posed when the poor reader enters the world history class. He is in the most difficult social studies course of all for him because it must rely so largely on vicarious ex-

perience. Therefore, it makes heavy demands at the very point where he is the weakest—*reading*.

With the problem posed, what can the teacher of world history to poor readers do? The task is both general and specific. Many factors contribute to ineffective reading. Such things as visual and auditory inadequacies, neurological and dominance factors, emotional instability, speech defects, language difficulty, mental ability, socio-environmental conditions, and poor instruction in reading previously may play a part in faulty performance. The teacher of world history needs to be sensitive to these matters, reporting her observations to the proper authorities. She cannot, however, be expected to do all that a teacher of remedial reading is prepared to undertake. Two stumbling blocks to effective reading remain: experience and interest.

The effectiveness of new learning depends largely on the adequacy of previous experience. Psychologists have said that a person cannot imagine that for which there is no basis in his experience. The printed page is like a mirror. What is seen in it depends on what is brought to it. What a youngster gets from the page will depend on the background of experience which he brings to his reading. Learning appears to proceed largely through a process of reconstructing and extending previous experience. Interest provides the motive force that keeps the process going effectively. Therefore, the role of the world history teacher is to extend experience and quicken interest.

## THE POOR READER

**A**T THIS point, better identification of the poor reader is necessary. Pupils with reading difficulties usually fall into two categories. One consists of those who have the ability to read better. Their mental age is average or above for the tenth grade, but their reading age is considerably below the mental age. For example, the MA might be grade 10 and the

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RA grade 8. Such a child is considered a poor reader. The other group consists of those with a mental age below grade 10 who are reading at their maximum capacity. Technically, these pupils are not retarded readers, although they present a reading problem for the teacher.

The difference in these two types of pupils reading below average is more important for goals than for method. The teacher needs to have at hand data on the ability, achievement, and interests of pupils so that the learning experiences can be so managed in the hope that, given sufficient motivation, the poor readers who are below their ability can be brought up to their reading capacity. For the others, good motivation can help them accomplish more, but the teacher must be reconciled to a reading performance below average.

More specifically, what can be done for both kinds of poor readers? Four suggestions follow.

#### TEACH MORE ABOUT LESS

**R**EFERENCE has already been made to the tremendous potential scope of the world history course. The full and complete story of man's development cannot be studied in the usual year's course by even the best readers. Some selection of learning experiences is done anyway by whoever sets the limits of the course, be this a faculty group, teacher-pupil committee, or textbook writer. For poor readers the omissions should be even greater to give these students more time. This is necessary because they work slowly, because they need more detail to round out the picture and make it lasting, and because a variety of procedures must be used with them. All too often the teacher of world history feels pressed to cover ground. One generalization frequently follows another throughout the course with insufficient learning experiences to make the so-called understandings really understood.

Time for teaching more about less can be made in two ways: (a) through fewer units for poor readers, and (b) through adaptation of units so that a narrower scope is required for poor readers than for the other students. With reference to the first of these approaches, the idea is workable whether the course is organized chronologically or topically. In the chronological pattern, instead of studying all civilizations of the Ancient Near East, one or two, such as the Egyptian, Hebraic, or Persian, could be investigated more thoroughly and at the same time show the basic characteristics of life in the Near

East. The causes, flowering, and results of the Renaissance can be illustrated just as well in one country as in all of western Europe. The same is true for the rise of the national state. Since our own governmental heritage is so largely British, England's development could well supply the example here. The French Revolution can be so used as to show the principles and characteristics of all revolutions.

Topical organizations of world history vary so widely that illustrations of general applicability are more difficult to cite than in the chronological approach. The idea is the same, however. If needs and institutions are the basis for the course, the development of government does not have to go back through all of time and outward to include the regions of the world as some courses of study do. Some emphases, perhaps the evolution of language and literature, the development of education, or of medicine through the ages, will have to be omitted altogether.

Before a plan of liberal omissions can be applied successfully, there must be acceptance of the idea that history should be taught to do more than tell a story. Those accustomed to teach world history to cover as much ground as possible may be reluctant to accept such a point of view. On the subject-matter side, values may seem to get lost, but this is not necessarily so. From the standpoint of the development of the student, there will be a gain. It is better to teach less and have the student understand something, than to teach much and have him comprehend nothing. Teaching less can really result in teaching more.

The course, even for poor readers, should have balance. What can best be omitted in a certain school or community must be decided by those close to the situation. The idea of fewer units is probably more workable in large schools where grouping often tends to be homogeneous and classes may have a higher percentage of poor readers than is true in small schools.

**I**N SMALL schools the principle of teaching more about less can be applied more easily perhaps by expecting the poor readers to explore only some aspects of a unit which the entire class is studying. One teacher using this approach had a tenth-grade class with I.Q.'s ranging from 68 to 146. Reading age varied from grade 6 to 13. In the unit on religions, the entire class posed the following questions for investigation:

1. What are the major religions in the world today?
2. What part of the world's population is Christian?
3. Where are these religions found today?
4. What are some of the differences in practices among the followers of the different religions?
5. Why are there many different religions in the world today?
6. What is the meaning of religion?
7. How does a religion originate?

The good readers composed one group and the poor readers the other. In one day's discussion the good readers disposed of the first three questions and then spent ten days finding the answers to numbers 6 and 7. Each student investigated the history of one of the major religions of the world. They reported as committees to their group and through general discussion reached satisfactory answers to numbers 6 and 7. Numbers 4 and 5 were answered in the process.

The poor readers, however, consumed three days answering the first three questions. Some made maps indicating the chief locations of various religions. Others compiled charts and diagrams by percentage and by numbers showing the apportionment of the world's population according to religions. The bulk of the time of the poor readers then was spent on question 4, preparing charts or outlines on major religions following such headings as founder, doctrines, literature, center, and extent of influence. Question 5 was answered in discussion after the charts were finished. The poor readers never tackled questions 6 and 7. They listened to the other group give their conclusions in a panel presentation and were free to enter the discussion which followed. They were not expected to handle the most abstract aspects of the unit and yet they had a meaningful experience. Such a procedure involves adaptation to individual differences on a qualitative as well as a quantitative basis.

#### SPEND MORE TIME ON THE PROCESS OF LEARNING

**T**HE history teacher has a responsibility to see that all students learn the specialized skills necessary to achievement in a given class. In world history this means giving attention especially to concepts and vocabulary unique to the course. Material to be studied is peppered with such terms as "nationalism," "totalitarianism," "benevolent despot," and seemingly sim-

pler ones like "feudal" and "primitive." The reading and interpretation of many kinds of maps are likewise closely related to work in world history. Further development in many other study skills such as locating and using various kinds of materials, handling data in graphic form, interpreting pictures, and outlining should be fostered.

Attention to these factors is necessary for students whose reading performance is normal or better. It is even more essential for the poor readers. Often students have become poor readers because they needed more help in the development of skills than they received. It is paradoxical to expect much progress by these students if the class period is predominantly given to oral group activity. The poor reader needs the teacher's help at the time he is studying. He will not get it unless some of the class time is consistently devoted to individual activity and focused on the process of learning.

#### USE AVENUES OTHER THAN READING FIRST AND HEAVILY TO EXTEND EXPERIENCE

**R**EADING is a highly abstract form of learning. Hence the objective in using other aids is to supply as direct, concrete, and specific experience as possible to facilitate a more meaningful interpretation of word symbols. Henry Johnson in his chapter, "Making the Past Real," has a helpful discussion on degrees of reality which is more complete than this one can be.<sup>1</sup> Criteria for the selection of such experiences include the degree of directness—the more direct the better—and the number of senses to which appeal is made. Again, the more senses involved, the better. For example, a trip to see is more effective than a description by one who has seen. A model has more realism than a flat picture of an object. A sound technicolor film is likely to have greater teaching value than a black and white still. Acting out an episode usually imparts more feeling than sitting and talking about it. For helpful, concrete suggestions on audiovisual materials, see the contributions of William G. Tyrrell.<sup>2</sup>

(Continued on page 243)

<sup>1</sup> Johnson, Henry. *Teaching of History*. New York: Macmillan, 1940. Chapter 8.

<sup>2</sup> Tyrrell, William G. "Audio-Visual Materials for World History," in *Improving the Teaching of World History*. West, Edith, editor. Twentieth Yearbook. Washington: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1949. p. 186-206. And "Musical Recordings for World History," in *Social Education* 13:361-66; December 1949.

# Science in the Late Middle Ages

Francis N. Estey

IN AN era which has seen and is seeing science hampered, molded, and limited by political considerations, one might legitimately expect to find a truer appraisal and understanding of the scientific and technological contributions of the Middle Ages. Generally speaking this has not been the case. Only recently have such scholars as Sarton, Thorndike, White, and Durand,<sup>1</sup> to mention but four, been able to reach a significantly large audience. In spite of their continuing efforts, little of what they have done has been reflected in texts, and popular books. Old errors, prejudices, and beliefs die hard. This article makes no attempt to cover the field; rather it is an attempt to stimulate interest among teachers in the fundamental work done in recent years by scholars in the history of science. As a result of this recent work, revision of many of our notions is necessary. Revision is not debunking. Reassessment destroys nothing of the true stature of any man or movement. Certainly we think no less of Newton's great achievements because our own contemporary, Einstein, has shown him to be incorrect. Every age has limitations beyond which it cannot pass—limitations of which the age is seldom conscious.

Living in the early moments of the "atomic age," knowing little beyond the faintest suggestion of what may ultimately develop, we should be in a position to appreciate, in part at least, the mental strain, even anguish, caused by the impact of the scientific discoveries of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. An old cosmology, one which apparently fitted the truths of faith, was being torn away. The necessary reorientation was a hard one for most individuals to make. At the prospect and possibilities men were staggered; so are we.

Behind both of these epochal reorientations lay much preparatory work. Today we readily admit the long preparation necessary to any im-

portant scientific development. We are less aware of the spade work preceding scientific advances of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Much that was done was wrong; some were judicious hunches of astute and intelligent men needing more work before full fruition was possible.

INTELLECTUALLY speaking, the early Middle Ages lived in a world of symbols, not in a world of visible, naked facts. The influence of Platonic Idealism was so strong that behind each object and event was thought to be the "Idea," with its spiritual or moral significance. The particular was but the imperfect reflection of the perfect. As they saw it, God had created the world exclusively for the spiritual edification of Man. "In the most literal sense the men of the age found 'sermons in stones and books in running brooks.' They believed that the universe was a vast rebus to be solved, a cryptogram to be decoded. All that is red became to them a reminder of the blood of Christ; all that is wooden, a memento of his cross; every spring evoked a recollection of their rebirth through baptism. . . . The pelican, which was believed to nourish its young with its own blood, was the analogue of Christ, who feeds mankind with his blood. In such a world there was no thought of hiding behind a clump of reeds actually to observe the habits of a pelican. There would have been no point to it. Once one had grasped the spiritual meaning of the pelican, one lost interest in individual pelicans." The world was indeed a world of shadows and reflections where the knowledge of things was

<sup>1</sup> Sarton, George. *Introduction to the History of Science*. 3 vols. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins Co., 1927-1948. Thorndike, Lynn. *A History of Magic and Experimental Science*. 6 vols. New York: Columbia University Press, 1923-1941. White, Lynn. "Technology and Invention in the Middle Ages." *Speculum* 15:141-59; April 1940. And his "Natural Science and Naturalistic Art in the Middle Ages." *American Historical Review* 52:421-35; April 1947. Durand, Dana B. "Nicole Oresme and the Medieval Origins of Modern Science." *Speculum* 16:167-85; April 1941. More recently a very useful and interesting book, *The Origins of Modern Science, 1300-1800*, (London: George Bell and Sons, 1949), written by H. Butterfield of Cambridge University, has appeared.

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barren, for the things themselves were not actually real.

IN THE course of the twelfth century, with the advent of the Gothic style, a change in attitude towards natural things is increasingly apparent. This century in every facet of human expression and action—economic, political, religious, as well as artistic—reflects optimism and a willingness to try new things. It was the first period of boom and expansion western Europe, as Europe, had experienced. There were the draining of swamps, the diking of the sea, the leveling of primeval forests: the internal improvements as well as the frontier movement, with its concomitant colonial agents trying to lure prospective settlers into new areas. In the field of learning everything was in a state of ferment, increasingly so as the works of the Arabs and the Greeks (particularly Aristotle) became available. The effect of all this was a certain intellectual bumptiousness, as can be seen, for example, in Abélard's trying out logic like a new toy on the numerous questions of the day. Or again, when Adelard of Bath wryly comments: "I am not the sort of fellow who can be fed with the picture of a beefsteak!" No symbolists they!

Symbolism did not disappear, but its field became more restricted. Interest in things for their own sake can be seen more and more clearly as Gothic style developed toward a completely naturalistic representation of flora. So accurately are these depicted by the artist that identification of large numbers of flowers and herbs is possible. The great bulk of Gothic flora was used as pure decoration and was free from symbolism.

AT THE same time men were acquiring a great mass of the scientific knowledge of the Greeks together with the Arab contributions. Medieval men knew most in the fields of mathematics and astronomy. They knew what the Greeks knew and what the Arabs had introduced. In astronomy they knew that the moon was smaller than the sun. The approximate circumference of the earth was known, which means that they considered it possible to circumnavigate. They knew the motions of the planets and the positions of innumerable fixed stars. Much of this was the heritage from thousands of nameless men since the time of the Egyptians. Few new observations were made; it was more difficult to observe much that was new with

the naked eye. Too often they saw only what they expected to see. In mathematics there was geometry and trigonometry, with algebra beyond the Greeks. Moreover, in the course of the later Middle Ages they were able to improve on the system of notation which up until that time had been cumbersome. The diffusion of Arabic numerals was slow, not being widely used until the fifteenth century. Analytical geometry was in a crude state of development, and it remained for Descartes to complete it. Except for notations, the mathematics that was known in fifteen hundred was essentially the same as what was known in twelve hundred.

In physics not much was known. Under Arab influence knowledge of optics was increased. Apparently enough was known so that a microscope could have been built. The actual existence of one is not certain. Advances of great importance were made in the field of what might be called loosely applied physics—technology. Our knowledge of the medieval contribution here is only now increasing. It might be said, as it has been said, that "the chief glory of the later Middle Ages was not its cathedrals or its epics or its scholasticism; it was the building for the first time in history of a complex civilization which rested not on the backs of sweating slaves or coolies but primarily on non-human power."

The knowledge of chemistry in this period was drawn mostly from the Arabs rather than from the Greeks. Greek chemistry was inadequate. Oddly enough, much of the Arab theory was false, although there was some truth in it. They, and their inheritors, wasted much time attempting to change one substance into another. They sought to transmute mercury into gold, to find the elixir of life; they failed. While their theory was wrong, their techniques were quite good. They were able to isolate elements and create compounds; salts, acids, oxides, and bases were known. This was a positive gain, but the Middle Ages added little to it. Similarly, in the field of medicine the theory was deficient and the practice was not really much better. There was some dissection in the thirteenth century Italian schools, but anatomical knowledge was far from complete. The state of medicine was such that if people got well it was usually in spite of, not because of, the early doctors.

None of the additions to this heritage was of a startling nature; nevertheless, positive steps were taken. Together with the strong points of Greek science the Middle Ages unfortunately

fell heir to many of its weaknesses. The Greeks were geometrically minded; they liked solids and planes. Everything had to be connected; the idea of discontinuity was abhorrent to them. Free motion of heavenly, or other bodies, was unthinkable. The Greeks had learned rapidly and as a result were intellectually confident, frequently generalizing from too few facts. Logic and verbal gymnastics clouded factual omissions. There was altogether too much faith and reliance on logic, which often led to the identification of logic with natural law. It was argued, for example, that, since the heavens were divine, the motion of the stars must be eternal, and, therefore, the heavens must be a rotating sphere. Logic told them that the perfect form of motion was a circle. As a result of this type of thinking, explanations involving irregular motion were avoided as being illogical. Similarly, Greek scientists were hindered by their teleological interests. They pondered the purpose and virtue of things and of nature. Fire was thought to be the noblest of the elements. Heated air rose as the air became more like fire. Not until Descartes was teleology to be divorced from science.

Understandably, the religious atmosphere of the Middle Ages strengthened many of the notions. The theologians could not accept the idea of discontinuity for it was a denial of cause and effect; it denied the working of God's will. Similarly, atoms implied chance. Even more than the Greeks, men in the Middle Ages minimized observation. This was due partly to the religious emphasis of the times, the existence of a body of divine revelation and also perhaps the fact that they had far more data (from the Arabs) than did the Greeks which may have lessened any drive to accumulate more. All of this scientific knowledge had to be assimilated and understood, and also it had to be reconciled with Christian truth. It took a great deal of time and mental energy to assimilate and reconcile this new information. No doubt time was wasted in exploring teleological questions which to us lie outside the realm of science. Yet, in a real sense, was this not all part of the West's coming of age?

This interest in science which was evidenced in the late Middle Ages, even if it did not bring startling results, was a good thing. Not only was the knowledge of the Greeks and Arabs saved for the future, but, far more important, it left its mark. The men of the age continued to ask questions, the same questions as the Greeks and some new ones. Their answers were often

wrong. But even here the future gained positive value from negative results. Knowledge of other's mistakes should always be valuable. The method of the twelfth century scientist had severe limitations; it was far too dependent on tradition and much too bookish. However, the curiosity of the twelfth century led to experimentation in the thirteenth, thus establishing a tradition which flowered spectacularly in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

Of all the scientific writers of the ancient world, Aristotle was the most influential in late Middle Ages. He had been a monumental figure in an earlier age, and men in the Middle Ages found in his writings satisfactory answers to problems they were dealing with. His works were reasonable and consistent and sometimes based upon accurate observation. But not infrequently he studied nature through the eye of reason, not the eye of sense. Yet even with his great reputation he was not accepted blindly. In the course of establishing his own position, Aristotle frequently referred to the scientific theories of his precursors or contemporaries and sought to destroy them. By attacking what were to him false notions, such as the atomic theory and the rotation of the earth, he provided pregnant leads to his medieval critics. Among the earliest experiments in the Middle Ages were those directed at disproving Aristotle. Criticism of "the master of those who know" was incipient. Even after the Thomistic synthesis of Aristotelian philosophy and Christian doctrine criticism was not silenced. The great rivals of the Dominicans (Thomas Aquinas was a Dominican), the Franciscans, were unable to erect a synthesis of their own, but they were able to show that Aristotle was wrong in certain cases. From the Franciscan Order came much that underlies modern philosophy.

THE Franciscans gave scientific expression to the new attitude towards nature mentioned earlier. To St. Francis the things of nature were symbols, but, more important, they were fellow beings placed on earth for God's own purposes. "It may be said without exaggeration that St. Francis first taught Europe that nature is interesting and important in and of itself. No longer were flames merely the symbol of the soul's aspirations: they were Brother Fire. The ant was not simply a homily to sluggards, the worm not solely a sermon on humility: now both were autonomous entities. St. Francis was the greatest revolutionary in history: he forced

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man to abdicate his monarchy over the creation, and instituted a democracy of all God's creatures. Man was no longer the focus of the visible universe. In this sense Copernicus is a corollary of St. Francis." The interest and keen observation of the artists in the Gothic tradition is matched by the scientific interest of members of the Franciscan Order. It is no surprise, given the emotional basis for an objective study of nature as supplied by St. Francis, that his order should attract men with a scientific bent of mind: from the over-publicized Roger Bacon to Duns Scotus and William of Ockham. The last two men translated this new attitude into philosophical terms: nominalism. In time this led to the divorcement of theology from science.

This interest in nature was never again to die out. Its course in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries is obscure, but is now gradually coming to light. Too frequently these centuries are looked upon merely as eras of gloom and superstition. It was the period of the Babylonian Captivity, the Black Death, the Hundred Years War; but this is only one part, although an important part, of the picture. Some historians refer to it as the "autumn of the middle ages" because of the sharp and sometimes colorful contrasts between great wealth and abject poverty, mysticism and rank materialism, and superstition and intellectual curiosity. It was the age of such literary figures as Petrarch and Boccaccio, Chaucer and Villon. Less striking to the eye, but important nonetheless, was the work done by two men in France during the late fourteenth century: Jean Buridan and Nicole Oresme. Both of these men were churchmen; both did much of their mature work during the dismal years between the French defeats at Crecy (1346) and Poitiers (1356). They belonged to a generation which had mastered the whole of Aristotle. As commentators on Aristotle, they had two alternatives: a regurgitation of the old familiar points, or a development of new and subtle interpretations. It is to their credit that they chose the second alternative.

**L**ITTLE is known about Jean Buridan's life. He was born in the vicinity of Arras in northern France around 1300 and lived about 58 years. By 1328 he had risen to the post of Rector of the University of Paris. If we were to believe François Villon, who lived a century later, Buridan was a later day Abélard. The possibilities of the story, if not the truth of it, were of interest to Alexander Dumas in his

*La Tour de Nesle*. Intellectually speaking, Buridan was a man of wide interests. Philosophically he was a follower of William of Ockham, a nominalist. His greatest claim to fame lies in his treatment of the ideas of movement and impetus. He was an indirect founder of modern dynamics. While by no means the first to do so, he stood in opposition to Aristotelian physics. He felt there were no movements in nature to which Aristotle's principles applied. "The impetus of a body, as conceived by Buridan, is proportional to its speed, volume and density; it is thus not essentially different from Cartesian quantity of motion or linear momentum ( $mv$ ). Buridan's concept is a weak anticipation of the concept of inertia." He was of the opinion that God had started things off with an indestructible push. There was no reason to conjure up angels or other extraordinary means of explaining continued motion. While admitting differences between earthly and heavenly bodies, he was one of the first to suggest that the same principles of dynamics applied to both. The world had to wait for Newton to have this hunch proven.

An interesting and not unimportant sidelight on Buridan's interests, and a reflection of the new attitude toward nature in the late Middle Ages, is his interest in mountains. On a trip to Avignon late in the pontificate of John XXII (1316-1334) Buridan evidenced real interest in the Cévennes and in Mt. Ventoux. There is the possibility that he climbed Mt. Ventoux. A few years later Petrarch climbed the same mountain; he was no man to hide his light under a bushel.

Another problem which made Buridan curious was why dry land had not been washed into the sea years ago. Interestingly enough he looked for and found a mechanistic answer, which was essentially the same as the present theory of isostasy. As in many of his other writings he used Aristotle as a point of departure for his own inquiry, which was determined by mechanistic principles in relation to observable phenomena. He still used teleological arguments, but they were incidental. His students, and through them his teachings, went to the new universities of Central Europe. "His work guided for some two centuries the nominalist school, then the Italian mechanicians who completed the preparation of Galileo's revolution."

**T**HE life of Nicole Oresme is a medieval success story and shows that the Church, even in the fourteenth century, offered a career open to talent. Born of Norman peasant stock



about 1323, Oresme, in the course of his some 60 years, rose by dint of intellectual genius and a slightly predatory ambition to be Bishop and Count of Lisieux. He was educated at the College de Navarre at Paris and later became its Grand Master. At one time he was the tutor of the Dauphin Charles, and after he became king Charles V (the Wise), Nicole Oresme became one of his advisors. Charles deserved his sobriquet, the Wise, for not only was he intellectually curious, but in addition he was a capable ruler. Around him he gathered an "inner or kitchen cabinet" made up of a small group of trusted officials and ministers; Oresme was included in this group. They met periodically, even in those anxious times, to discuss practical problems and what Aristotle had to say about these questions. For this group Oresme prepared careful French translations of the master. One of his most influential pieces of writing, a tract on currency, probably grew out of the discussions of this group. This book was the first study of the problem of currency, and offered a practical and closely reasoned solution to the shocking debasement of French money.

In his scientific interests he was one of the greatest mechanicians and mathematicians of the late Middle Ages. Like Buridan, he was a nominalist, Ptolemaic in astronomy, and was much interested in the problems of impetus; unlike Buridan, he flirted with atomism. Oresme was much interested in the possibilities of the graph, but the idea of the graph predates him. "He may be credited with a two-fold idea: (1) more systematic use of coordinates, (2) more systematic use of graphs to represent the growth of a function." While this is not an anticipation of analytical geometry, it may have made its development easier. Similarly, he had a hunch that the least amount of change occurs near the highest or lowest points of a curve. This foreshadows the modern theory of maxima and minima. A number of his scientific works were written in French, rather than the usual scholarly medium of Latin; because of this he had to create new words and terms. As a result, he was

responsible for a good deal of scientific French, and his style did much to give French a precision and clarity formerly lacking. In all of his work his "final attitude was one of vigilant criticism and skepticism."

THE tradition of critical Aristotelianism in which Jean Buridan and Nicole Oresme were important was a potent influence in the Italian universities at the close of the Middle Ages. The University of Padua, the outstanding scientific school in Europe, was a strong center of Aristotelian physics even into the time of Galileo. Galileo himself had been trained in Aristotelianism and taught at Padua for over a decade. He remained in the tradition of Paduan Aristotelianism in philosophy and method, if not in physics. Too many people think that the science of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was a continuation of ancient science; it was that, but it was a continuation which would have been impossible or completely different without the gropings of the Middle Ages. The physics of Galileo was a climax of centuries of such gropings. It did not emerge spontaneously from the minds of the time. Few men in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries realized how much they owed to the slow incubation of ideas which was the indispensable contribution of the Middle Ages. "This was hidden from them because the Renaissance scholars had tried to obliterate the Middle Ages; that obliteration, whether conscious or not, continued in the field of art and letters until the Romantic age, and in the field of science until our very own." There was no great discovery cutting to the heart of thought in the fourteenth century. Yet it does not follow that the probings and queries of this and earlier periods were sterile. The Middle Ages were full of ideas which did not develop until later. "Modern science, we might say, was the happy fruition of medieval immaturity. Vesalius, Copernicus, Galileo, Newton were the happy inheritors who cashed in." They were as giant trees well rooted in the fertile soil.

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# A Letter from England . . . and a Reply

J. M. Klock

ONE of the persistent problems facing teachers in the social sciences is that of knowing just what conditions are in other countries. In these days of crisis and conflict of ideologies, there are enormous amounts of propaganda in circulation, and it is hard to separate fact from fiction. One problem teachers face in their attempts to separate truth from myth is that of the "quickie authority." This person follows the pattern that was set during the war by observers of high position, and which has unfortunately remained in vogue. It works like this: The person flies across a country; he lands in it and meets some people; he may visit a large city in that country for a day or two; he eats dinner with some official or other; then he returns home an authority on the social life, educational system, economy, politics, and everything else concerning that country, together with all the related problems, the solution to these problems, and the lessons the United States can learn from that country.

It is hoped that these two letters will illustrate the fact that a combination of the social scientist's demand for facts with a knowledge of the historian's approach to sources can help the social science teacher get a better perspective of other countries.

## LETTER FROM ENGLAND

Dear Jack,

. . . I finally got on the boat, arrived over here, and have knocked about London for a month, meeting quite a few people . . . and getting the general story on nationalization and its problems. On the whole it is rough, the economic position is plain to see, and the nationalized industries are filled with incompetents who

hold committee meetings to keep up their morale and spread the responsibility. Good men are snowed under, and such efficiency as they could work out will be a good four or five years in coming. The health scheme, the rationing, the income-spread, the whole system of fair shares is either popular or accepted by all classes. However, the fact that there is so very little to go around takes all the joy out of life. The country is getting along, the children are healthy, everybody has his false teeth, but there is no zip to English life, nobody is getting a kick out of it. . . . Best of luck to you, T.

## A REPLY

Dear T.,

I cannot help feeling that you are making what the social scientist calls "common sense" judgments about England. That is, you have been to England, observed it very briefly, and now propose to draw conclusions. It is similar to the person who says, "Scotchmen are very thrifty—I know this is true because I knew a Scotchman once and he was thrifty." Or, "I have been in the South, and I have seen Negroes, and I know that Negroes are happy under the conditions there." The fallacy is in believing that because one is close to a situation and has observed it, that he can make valid judgments about it. Usually these judgments are based on inadequate evidence. You have been in England one month, you have met some people, you have made observations during that time, and now you feel that you can conclude that the nationalized industries are filled with incompetents, that industrial efficiency is not now prevalent and will be slow in forthcoming, that good men are held back, and that there is no "zip" in English life. It might seem that these tremendous generalizations are based on inadequate evidence.

Let me make a common sense judgment from another source. I know a man who spent some months with relatives in England. All of the

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(Continued on page 236)

# The Treatment of Controversial Issues in the Schools

This report, prepared by the Committee on Academic Freedom, was officially adopted after careful consideration by the members of the 1950 and 1951 Boards of Directors of the National Council for the Social Studies. The names of the members of the Committee that drafted the report and of the members of the Boards of Directors that adopted it, appear at the end of the statement.

SINCE we live in a period of rapid social change, we are, as a people, faced with many public problems—social, political, and economic. Many of these problems are acute and pressing. Ideas as to policies and solutions differ widely. Proposed solutions often may conflict with the interests and cherished beliefs of some groups in the population. Before action can be taken, a long period of discussion may be necessary. By means of public discussion these differences can gradually be analyzed and a course of action agreed upon. Free discussion of current issues is, then, the heart of the democratic process. It follows that education for citizenship in a democracy must emphasize the study and discussion of controversial issues and must teach the skills needed for this study and discussion.

Intelligent behavior in a problem situation has to be learned. It begins with:

1. Willingness to examine one's point of view and one's own bias.
2. Effort to understand the basis for differing points of view.
3. Skill in analyzing the issues so as to identify and evaluate possible courses of action and to discover areas of agreement.
4. Willingness to search for ways of working with others for such common goals as can be identified.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In support of this, we reaffirm the action of the Council of November 1949: "We accept as part of the responsibility of social studies education the development in our students of a desire to engage in social action. As students mature, an increasingly large proportion of their action should be at the citizen's level of contribution to the public good rather than merely to their own personal welfare. Such action, however, should be based upon critical examination of relevant values, arguments, and evidence and should in no way imply that the school is committed to partisan causes." "NCSS Annual Business Meeting: Resolutions" (November 25, 1949). *Social Education* 14:32; January 1950.

If young people are to behave intelligently in problem situations, the schools must give them an abundance of opportunities to learn and practice this type of behavior. Without minimizing the importance of that large part of the curriculum made up of established truths and values, but recognizing that gradual social change is inevitable, the National Council for the Social Studies recommends that it be the explicit policy of the nation's public schools to encourage and maintain the study of the unsolved problems and the current, controversial issues of our society. Only through this study can children develop the abilities they will need as citizens of a democracy—to analyze a problem, to gather and organize facts, to discriminate between fact and opinion, to draw intelligent conclusions, and to accept the principle of majority rule with due respect for minorities. The school has the responsibility for helping every boy and girl to develop and to apply these abilities. Hence, the school must uphold freedom to learn.

## ESSENTIALS OF THE FREEDOM TO LEARN

FREEDOM to learn is part of the heritage of every American child. It rests upon four essentials:

1. The right to study and discuss significant issues, social, economic, and political.
2. The right of access to publications or statements that have a bearing on the issue.
3. The right to study and discuss all sides of the issue in an atmosphere free from compulsion.
4. The right to reach and express an opinion that may be different from that of other members of the class and from that of the teacher.

If these essentials are to be achieved in American schools, social studies teachers must help



students develop skills in critical thinking. If teachers are to have responsibility for helping students learn and practice these skills, they must be given corresponding confidence and security. Every teacher needs to feel that his status will not be jeopardized by opinions expressed and positions taken in the analysis of controversial issues in the classroom.

#### THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN THE STUDY OF CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

THE teacher has responsibilities both to his students and his community in the handling of controversial issues:

1. To present or to permit the presentation of significant current questions by the class. Such questions should be considered in the light of their suitability for the age level and the community.
2. To help students obtain an adequate quantity and variety of materials representing all sides of the question.
3. To help students form their own working questions, pursuit of which will lead to greater understanding of the problem.
4. To call attention to the case for unpopular causes if necessary to assure a well-rounded consideration of the question. Points of view should be associated with their sponsors rather than with the authority of the teacher.
5. To help students distinguish between fact and opinion, and to form their opinions from the available facts rather than to look for facts to support a preconceived opinion.
6. To help students discover common goals and areas of agreement while recognizing that the generalizations and conclusions of individual students need not be alike.
7. To encourage students to make up their minds on the issue, rather than to remain in a state of indecision. Open-mindedness and willingness to change a conclusion should be recognized as an essential of critical thinking.
8. To exemplify good social behavior in a controversial situation. "In the heat of discussion it is important that the teacher shall be the most willing to hear another out, the least willing to point the finger of scorn at an unpopular position; the most willing to explore to the very bottom any position which may be taken; the most willing to examine critically his own posi-

tion; the fairest, the coolest, the most factual person in the discussion."<sup>2</sup>

9. To keep in mind his purpose: the development of informed and responsible citizens.
10. To "refrain from using his classroom privileges to promote partisan politics, sectarian religious views, or selfish propaganda of any kind."<sup>3</sup>

In the study of current issues, the teacher's role is not to pose as an authority but rather to stimulate students to gather the evidence and to arrive at their own conclusions. Some of the best teaching is done when the teacher acknowledges himself to be a learner and both he and the students set out to discover all they can about a problem which interests them. Nevertheless, the teacher must have sufficient background and skill to evaluate the facts presented and the sources of information used.

Those who advocate that a teacher's position should not be known on a current issue give a counsel of perfection. Over a period of time, it is not likely that a teacher can (or should) successfully conceal his preferences among alternative proposals or even among alternative sources of information. With high school age students and older, a satisfactory procedure may be for the teacher to establish the criteria for the consideration of current issues (such as the ten listed above), and ask the students to maintain a sound balanced treatment, with special emphasis on points eight, nine, and ten, above.

#### EVALUATING TEACHING MATERIALS FOR THE STUDY OF CURRENT ISSUES

IN RECENT years some persons have been fearful that unpatriotic doctrines may be taught in the public schools. Patriotic organizations have been watchful of textbooks, especially those used in social studies courses, and have denounced the use of some of these, despite the fact that they had been approved by committees of responsible professional educators. Sometimes the political opponents of a school administrator have attacked certain teaching materials used in the local schools. The charges usually made are that the item in question is "unpatriotic," "un-American," "radical," or "reactionary." The

<sup>2</sup> Engle, Shirley. "Controversial Issues in World History Classes." *Improving the Teaching of World History*. Twentieth Yearbook. Washington: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1949. p. 152.

<sup>3</sup> National Education Association. *A Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession*. Washington: NEA, 1940.

basis for the charge is frequently that the author of the material shows sympathy for liberal ideas on such questions as race relations, regional planning, public housing, or compulsory health insurance.

Whatever the motives of those who make these attacks (and, generally, the motive is honest), the effects are likely to be unfortunate. (1) Teachers may be influenced to select materials not because they will challenge students to think about important current issues but because they are deemed to be safe from attack. (2) The authors of textbooks and of articles in classroom periodicals may be influenced to emphasize the prevailing point of view and to slight the unpopular point of view. (3) The editors of textbooks and classroom periodicals may be influenced to exercise an informal censorship over these materials, deleting or toning down passages that seem to favor currently unpopular proposals. (4) School boards and school administrators may be influenced to exercise a censorship over these materials. (5) Teachers of social studies may become fearful of studying controversial issues, since the materials used for such study may be denounced at any time and the finger of suspicion pointed at those who selected the material or admitted it to the classroom. Since ideas expressed by the teacher and repeated by students outside the classroom may attract unfavorable notice, many teachers avoid the discussion of social issues in the classroom or deal with them in a timorous fashion. Such an attitude on the part of the teacher inhibits students in their investigation of the facts and makes impossible a well-balanced consideration of all points of view on the issue.

Attacks on materials of instruction led to the adoption by the National Council for the Social Studies of the following resolution:

The Council opposes the official blacklisting of materials for student use. The choice of appropriate materials for educational purposes in the social studies must, in our opinion, be made in accordance with educational standards and needs. The blacklisting of textbooks is a threat to the freedom of expression traditionally allowed authors and publishers for the purpose of producing materials representative of every viewpoint. Such blacklisting tends to encourage the textbook industry to abandon its allegiance to the principles of freedom and to conform to the views and official pronouncements of pressure groups.<sup>4</sup>

Teachers and administrators should select materials carefully for school use. Criteria for the selection of such material should be agreed upon

in advance and should be applied by a representative textbook and materials committee of teachers and administrators. The following might be some of the criteria considered.

#### CRITERIA FOR EVALUATION OF TEACHING MATERIALS USED IN THE STUDY OF CURRENT ISSUES

1. Relevance of material:
  - a. Is the material related to the objectives of the course or the unit?
  - b. Is the material related to the issue being studied?
  - c. Is the material adaptable to the range of reading ability of the students? In case of supplementary material, it may properly be too easy or difficult for the majority of the class.
  - d. Is the material used as a basic text or as supplementary material?  
(Note: Supplementary material of a biased nature is rightfully used in order that various sides of an issue may be considered by the students. A basic text should be expected to meet criteria of objectivity and fairness that cannot be applied to all supplementary material.)
2. Balance and objectivity:
  - a. Is the material factually accurate?
  - b. Does the author distinguish between unsupported generalizations and generalizations based upon objective data?
  - c. Are opinions distinguished from statements of fact?
  - d. Is the material written in an objective, well-balanced manner?
  - e. Does the author indicate that there are conflicting theories or opinions on the issues under discussion?
  - f. Can use of the material help students to develop sound methods of weighing evidence and evaluating conclusions?

Note: If the material in question does not meet the criteria outlined in (2), its use may still be justified. The following questions concerning the way in which it is used would then be pertinent:

- 1) Have students been provided with a variety of supplementary materials written from divergent points of view?
- 2) Are students aware of the nature and purposes of the organization publishing the material?
- 3) Have the students been helped to analyze the partisan nature of the material and its lack of objectivity and balance?

<sup>4</sup>"NCSS Annual Business Meeting: Resolution." *op. cit.*

3. Likelihood of contribution to democratic citizenship:

- a. Can use of the material arouse interest in issues that confront American citizens today?
- b. Can use of the material help in developing an appreciation of democratic ideals?
- c. Can use of the material help in developing an understanding of democratic procedures for solving problems that confront individuals, groups, and communities?
- d. Can use of the material aid in developing understanding of the rights of the individual in American society?
- e. Can use of the material help develop understanding of the obligations of the individual in American society?
- f. If the material treats situations that may be regarded as failures or shortcomings of our democracy, does it point out constructive ways for dealing with these situations within the framework of our Constitution?

*Note:* If the material in question does not meet the criteria outlined in (g), its use may still be justified. The following questions concerning the way in which it is used would then be pertinent:

- 1) Is the material provided in order to illustrate an undemocratic point of view?
- 2) Has the teacher called attention to ways in which the material fails to uphold democratic ideals and practices?

These criteria should be in writing, available to teachers, administration, school board, and interested patrons. They should be used by the faculty textbook committee in the selection of materials, and records of its judgments should be kept.

The school staff should be willing to re-examine texts or other materials on request of the school board. "Black-lists" should be opposed by teachers and school boards. Objections should be specific and related to a whole volume, magazine or other material of instruction, not based on a sentence or paragraph taken out of context. Loose generalizations and innuendo should be met with an invitation to be specific and objective. Charges should be submitted in writing to the school's textbook committee for study and report.

If the objectors are not satisfied with the statement of the textbook committee, the school board might set up a lay committee to examine the materials objected to. On such a committee, persons representing the school board, the PTA,

and representatives of business, labor, and public service (social service or librarians for example) could be appointed. All pertinent data should be submitted to this committee and it should be asked to document an opinion on the use of the material. The findings of this lay committee should be reviewed by the textbook committee, and a report submitted to the school board. The decision of the school board should be final for the time.

The purpose of this orderly procedure is to remove the attacks upon texts and other materials from the arena of charge and counter-charge and assign it to objective analysis. Persons or groups who would not consent to such a procedure have no right to influence public education.

Similar cautions and safeguards are suggested in a report adopted by the American Legion at its annual convention in 1949. Its Committee on Evaluation of Instructional Materials reported:

1. Interpretation of materials is often aided by studying the selfish interests and known biases of authors and sponsors of materials.
2. The evaluation of parts of materials out of context is obviously unjust.
3. Authors and editors always work against space requirements and thus should be given the benefit of the doubt when interpretation of intent is questioned.
4. Democracy is based on free speech—there can be no freedom without it.
5. Material not prepared for school or college use will not conform to textbook criteria. When instructors bring in realistic materials on any issue the only question is whether the instructor presents both sides of a given issue.
6. Democracy is not a fragile institution, and when fairly presented neither suffers by comparison nor needs a defense.

The United States is strong. It is strong in its resources and productive system. It is even stronger in its democratic traditions and institutions. It is stronger still in its free people, independent in mind and spirit, accustomed to face problems, to use initiative, and to accept responsibility. Our political and economic system can stand comparison with those of any other nation. Americans who fear or oppose such comparison would appear to lack confidence in the strength and attractiveness of our ideals and institutions. Our experience and our faith in democracy tell us that we will not tolerate an economic system based on a regimentation of workers that deadens individual initiative and responsibility. A political system that is based on controlled information, on misinformation, and on convictions imposed from above is not for



Americans. The power of fanaticism is not to be underestimated, but the power of full knowledge and of conviction based on full information has always proved more enduring.

The strength of democracy is rooted in freedom of information, of thought, and of expression. It is founded on a free press and free channels of communication, on free speech, and free publication. It is supported by free teaching and free learning. For the present and future, as for the past, knowledge is power, and the truth both makes us and keeps us strong and free.

The Committee on Academic Freedom:

Anna Appleby, St. Petersburg (Fla.) Public Schools  
 Ralph A. Brown, State Teachers College, Cortland, N.Y.  
 Russell Broadhead, Wayne University, Detroit  
 George Engberg, University of Cincinnati  
 Ruth Gavian, Brooklyn College, New York  
 Floyd Haight, Dearborn (Mich.) Public Schools  
 Ray Lussenhop, Chicago Public Schools  
 George Reavis, Field Enterprises, Inc., Chicago  
 Ruth West, University of Minnesota High School  
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## A LETTER FROM ENGLAND AND A REPLY

(Continued from page 231)

people he met were from the upper classes, for that was the social status of his people. Based on the sample he got he could say (and did say) that the mass of English people were overwhelmingly against both rationing and price controls. Of course those he met had enough money to go on the black market and pay almost any price for the things they wanted. As they could buy all they wanted, they were willing to have the mass of people go without. In questioning your conclusions about British industry, might I suggest that you substitute the scientific approach. How, for example, does English production for 1950 compare with that of her last year of peace, 1938?

This scientific approach might be of use in your other judgments, too. For example, how does one judge whether or not a person is competent in a given position? How did you find out that the industries that were nationalized were "filled" with incompetents? Could you make a similar survey of corporations in the United States and point out who is and who is not

competent? In lieu of a scientific standard for competency, it might be mentioned that in industries in the United States one hears the same complaints. Men in lower levels of management complain that they are doing the work of the top-level men, without getting the rewards; others complain that the older men fill the top jobs and hold back the younger and more "competent" men; and there is always the question, "What does Smith do that makes him worth forty thousand dollars a year?" How does one judge when "good" men are being held down? Who says they are good men—they, themselves?

Finally, has your one-month study of English life been adequate to conclude that there is no "zip" in it, and that this lack of "zip" is caused by nationalization? Are you applying a common American myth to England by seeing what you want to see? If the thrill is gone from English life, how does one know the cause?

Let me hear from you soon, and let us have the facts and the figures. As always, JMK

# Social Studies Programs for Young Adolescents

Julian C. Aldrich

SHOULD the social studies in the lower secondary (junior high school) grades be content-centered or child-centered? Should instruction in these years be preparatory to the senior high school or should it deal with the needs and interests of young adolescents? Should instruction be organized in topics of a syllabus or in broad units dealing with large themes or problems? These questions are indicative of the ferment and confusion in planning for social studies programs in the lower secondary grades over the last fifty years.

In our century, the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission for the Reorganization of Secondary Education, the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, the Commission on the Relation of School and College (the Eight Year Study), the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges have all dealt with many aspects of social studies instruction in grades seven to nine. Out of the theory and practice there have come some recognizable trends. The Curriculum Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies proposed to describe and evaluate such trends.

If a teacher hopes that there are emphases so definite that their description may resolve all curriculum problems, he is doomed to disappointment. In schools today it is possible to find programs which follow the prescribed social studies content of 1892, the suggested approaches of 1918, and a complete child-centered program.

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Dr. Aldrich, a professor of education at New York University, is the editor of *Social Studies for Young Adolescents*. This bulletin, which is now in the hands of the printer, is the first of a new series prepared by the Curriculum Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies. The following brief article summarizes some of the conclusions contained in the forthcoming bulletin, copies of which may be obtained from the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D.C.

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AS THE Curriculum Committee approached this problem, it believed four major trends could be distinguished. (a) The work in child growth and development in the elementary schools have had an effect upon the junior and senior high schools. More and more curriculum programs have a section or a publication on the needs and interests of students. (b) The courses of study which have been developed seem to be in units with some relation to the needs and interests which have been identified. Even in history courses, there have been attempts to break down a piecemeal chronology into large units with titles based on pupils' interests. Due to the influence of the Committee on Social Studies, there seems to be a definite tendency to view the social studies as a part of the whole school program. (c) Not only are the various social studies related to each other, but also to the other subjects of the curriculum. This has gone so far as to submerge social studies, English, and sometimes science or mathematics into "general education," "social living," "common learnings," or a "core curriculum." (d) It is believed by the Curriculum Committee, too, that the pattern of curriculum change has been modified over the years. From pronouncements by national committees, schools have turned to all-school curriculum revision programs. In more recent years new relationships have been established. The classroom teacher is having a larger share in curriculum construction, the staff sees its task as contributing to classroom improvement, teachers take more interest in students' sharing in classroom planning, and the responsibility of teacher and staff and community are seen in new ways.

To explore these effects upon selected schools, the Curriculum Committee asked for accounts of social studies programs in many parts of the country. Out of those collected, five were chosen for inclusion in a curriculum bulletin.

On the basis of these descriptions and descriptions of schools which have appeared in educational periodicals and in manuscript sent to the Committee, the trends were noted and eval-

uated. The evaluation of the trends took the place of recommendations of the Committee. To answer the question, "How can we improve the teaching of the social studies for young adolescents?" the Committee asked three others: How shall students needs and interests be identified and used? How shall learning experiences be selected and organized? And what shall be the relations between teacher, staff, and community? The descriptions of practice and the evaluation of the programs are included in the forthcoming volume, *Social Studies for Young Adolescents*.

**I**N ANSWER to the question, "How shall student needs and interests be identified and used?" the Curriculum Committee believes that social studies teachers may improve the teaching of social studies for young adolescents by identifying and using student needs and interests as well as those of society. Formal and informal methods may yield information on what those interests and needs are. Such methods are illustrated in this volume. A continuous use of needs and interests is promoted by the use of cooperative planning and evaluating. Adolescent developmental needs have a more important place in social studies programs than most schools have given them. Social needs viewed through citizenship behavior will provide a more functional organization of social studies courses than is possible when teachers try to organize courses which follow outlines of knowledge.

**E**XAMINING the second question, "How shall learning experiences be selected and organized?" the Committee believes that learning experiences may be selected and organized to provide for the needs and interests of young

adolescents as they become more effective citizens through social studies education. Social studies teachers should organize their subjects around large themes or problems, should choose units which are related to personal-social and social-civic needs. They should provide for a variety and balance of pupil activities, develop skill in teacher-pupil planning, and use group work wisely. Social studies teachers should provide for the development of study skills, and should carry on a realistic evaluation of the achievement of objectives.

**T**O THE third question, "What shall be the relations between teacher, staff, and community?" the Curriculum Committee pointed out that social studies teachers must seek to work cooperatively with other teachers, with the administrative and supervisory staff, and with the community. So, also, must other teachers and the staff seek to use the energy and experience of social studies teachers. Guides and resource units should be developed by teachers (including those whose major responsibility in social studies instruction) with the aid of the curriculum staff and special advisers. Social studies teachers should work together to develop a vertically articulated program from kindergarten through the twelfth grade, and should work with other teachers to identify common objectives, common problems for class study, and common instructional procedures. Curriculum planning must include parents as well as students. At the same time, social studies teachers must recognize that the task of social education is broader than social studies instruction. They must develop a sound school-community program in support of a broad program of social education.

## RECENT SCHOLARSHIP AND INTERPRETATIONS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

(Continued from page 222)

The field of American diplomatic history is likewise one that defies brief survey. More as a token recognition than anything else, one may perhaps mention two recent volumes of general appeal: Samuel Flagg Bemis' magnificent diplomatic biography of John Quincy Adams;<sup>61</sup> and Thomas A. Bailey's informal *The Man in the Street: The Impact of American Public Opinion on Foreign Policy*.<sup>62</sup> Mentioned already

is the useful sourcebook edited by R. J. Bartlett.

As will have been noted in the course of this arbitrarily selective survey of the literature of American history since 1946, the scholarship has been high. Another general observation is that the literary quality has risen markedly. Whatever its source—greater attention to writing in graduate schools, better editorial work, or simply better writers—this development is fortunate. A final observation is that this wealth of new materials should help teachers to make American history more exciting to their students, for it cannot fail to stimulate the teachers.

<sup>61</sup> John Quincy Adams and the Foundations of American Foreign Policy. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1949.

<sup>62</sup> New York: Macmillan Co., 1948.



# HOW TO USE ORAL REPORTS

By MYRTLE S. LARKIN, *Herkimer (N.Y.) High School*

## Number 10. How To Do It Series

of the

### NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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WASHINGTON 6, D.C.

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Price 10 cents per copy. Discounts: 2-9 copies 10%; 10-99 copies 25%; 100 or more copies 33⅓%

*Preface:* This *How To Do It* notebook series, designed for a loose leaf binder, provides a practical and useful source of classroom techniques for social studies teachers. Elementary and secondary teachers alike will find them helpful. The titles now available in this series are: *How To Use a Motion Picture*, *How To Use a Bulletin Board*, *How To Use Local History*, *How To Use Daily Newspapers*, *How To Use Group Discussion*, *How To Take a Survey of Public Opinion*, *How To Use Recordings*, and *How To Do Cooperative Planning*. Additional titles are in preparation. Suggestions for further titles in this series are welcomed by the National Council for the Social Studies.

#### VALUES OF ORAL REPORTS

ALMOST everybody, man or woman, young or old, occasionally needs to talk to a group. Perhaps it is to make a speech; more often it will be to express an opinion or add information in a discussion of some particular plan or problem. Almost everybody, when this time comes, wishes that he felt more at ease, that he had had more experience in organizing and presenting his ideas orally. Often the rest of the group, too, wishes the speaker expressed himself more easily and with greater clarity.

Instruction in oral expression is not the responsibility solely of teachers of English and speech. It is both desirable and possible to prepare many oral reports as a cooperative effort of English, speech, and social studies teachers and students. The social studies teacher should grasp every opportunity to help develop good oral expression as a part of the requisites for adult citizenship in a democratic nation.

Students in social studies classes can learn to express ideas orally with ease and effectiveness if they have opportunities to practice doing so. Oral reports, properly developed, provide experience which should prove valuable immediately in school life, and later in adult activities. The acceptable oral report requires search for facts,

organization of material, clarity of speech and presentation, and, with all these, demonstration of ability to interest the audience. At the same time, oral reports can be planned to enrich the information available to the class and to stimulate their thinking as a particular problem is studied. Both the individual and the group gain from the effective use of oral reports.

It is difficult to realize the potential values of oral reports. Preparation is time consuming for both students and teacher. If the reports are to be effective, it is important to develop a desirable "atmosphere" in the classroom. Although their use requires effort, oral reports can be a most rewarding method of teaching and learning. Proper motivation and good preparation can overcome the most common obstacles—individual fright and group boredom—to make the oral report a popular procedure.

#### DEVELOPING CRITERIA

STUDENT attitudes toward reports are likely to be constructive if students and teacher have worked together to set the goals, and if these goals are clearly defined. One approach is to ask class members what person they most like to hear talk. Students may answer with the name of a teacher, a minister or priest, a local leader,

or someone they have heard on the radio. The question, "Why?" will bring out a variety of answers which can be listed on the blackboard. The list will probably include many of the following reasons:

1. I can understand him.
2. He speaks clearly.
3. He knows what he is talking about.
4. I like his voice.
5. He is interesting.
6. He keeps going; he doesn't have to stop and think of what he is going to say next.

With patience and questioning, students will interpret these statements and establish criteria for their own reports. Such a list might read:

1. Use words which we all know; if new words must be used, put them on the blackboard, pronounce them, and explain their meaning.
2. Use good grammar.
3. Organize the talk and stick to the subject.
4. Make reports interesting; avoid facts already known unless they are necessary to make points clear; use anecdotes and new facts to make a complete report.
5. Speak in a normal voice and so that all may hear.
6. Stand erect; don't fidget.
7. Don't take too long.
8. Look at the audience and tell the story: know content so well that you can tell the story without notes; use notes but *tell* story; write out the report but become so familiar with its content that you need only to glance at beginnings of sentences, statistics, or other notes and can look at audience most of the time.
9. Report should lead to further class discussion.

It is important that the class also consider the responsibilities of an audience. Students are likely to formulate some such a list as follows:

1. Look at speaker; let him see you are interested and expect him to do well.
2. Laugh only at jokes.
3. Sit quietly.
4. Take notes quietly and quickly if the report is for the purpose of acquiring definite information.

Audience performance can make or break the practice of using oral reports in the classroom. Fear of failure before one's peers is a major

obstacle to effective speaking. Audience members should be aware of and assume their responsibility to help the speaker succeed. The students should know that one of the chief purposes of oral reports is to develop the ability to stand on one's feet and give a talk before an audience. In the evaluation which follows a report, phases of the talk which were well done should be discussed first. Then the students should "help" their classmate develop his ability to give an oral report by making suggestions for improvement. In that atmosphere the less mature or self-conscious students will be more willing to undertake a report. Evaluations should be based on the criteria which the class has established for judging a report. Thus the person giving the report will know what to expect and is more likely to accept adverse comments as impersonal and fair.

### SELECTION OF TOPICS

THE selection of topics for oral reports is extremely important. The best ones are often those suggested by the students themselves. They may grow out of class discussion, a news event of interest to the class, the content of the unit, a movie, a radio program, an individual research project, or the like. The teacher may promote interest in a topic by means of a provocative question or statement which will arouse discussion and a desire for further information.

Whatever topics are selected and however they are initiated, they should be related to the unit or topic being studied. The following questions should also be considered:

1. What does the textbook have to say on the topic?
2. Are materials available to prepare a report on the topic?
3. Is the topic worth the time and effort necessary for the individual to develop a good report, and is it worth the class time needed for its presentation?

An oral report on material thoroughly covered by the textbook is worthless, if the text has been studied by the whole class. However, if the text gives only the provisions of the Taft-Hartley Act, for example, a report on the law, why it was passed, its supporters and opponents and the reasons for their positions would be a useful contribution to class proceedings. A topic on the Suez Canal will be entertaining if it goes beyond the textbook (the Canal's importance to trade routes and to the British Empire) to tell the story connected with building it, protecting it,

Disraeli's purchase of shares for England, and other pertinent information.

The teacher should always be certain that materials for preparing an oral report are readily available before the topic is undertaken by a student. If library facilities are inadequate, it is most important that the teacher be alert to sources of free or inexpensive materials and obtain them. Magazine articles can be filed for this purpose, too. Students, if encouraged, will often help to build up a classroom file of useful materials. Once certain that the necessary materials for a given report topic are available, the teacher may properly expect the student to take major responsibility for actually obtaining them.

Preparing an oral report affords opportunity for the better readers to use source materials. The *Federalist Papers* may be used as an example. A student might do a report comparing the ideas of Alexander Hamilton and Robert Lansing on the power of the federal government under the Constitution of the United States. Original sources such as diaries and accounts of travelers may be drawn upon to provide illustrations and to liven a report topic dealing with a particular period of history or a specific region.

Reports which are personalized are likely to be more interesting than general topics. For example, in a unit on the growth of labor unions in the United States, a topic such as "Why I Would Join a Labor Union" would be more appealing to students than "The Values of Labor Unions." A useful booklet on this topic is *Why I Am in the Labor Movement*, by 15 labor leaders.<sup>1</sup> Personal interviews, where appropriate to the report topic, provide valuable material and help increase student interest by providing a personalized approach to a topic which might otherwise remain abstract.

Students need to be warned against a common pitfall in giving reports on the lives of individuals. The encyclopedic kind of biographical report telling that a person was born, lived, did great things, and died, is guaranteed to be unpopular, boring, and not conducive to reaching the goals hoped for by this method of classroom procedure. However, a good report of a person's life could be done by using a variety of sources—books (full length biographies or brief accounts in collections of biography), diaries, magazine articles, and in some cases movies—and a variety of methods of presentation. *Private Lives* by Van Loon may suggest some interesting approaches.

<sup>1</sup> Special Report No. 20. National Planning Association, 800 21st St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. January 1949.

## SCHEDULING REPORTS

**T**IMING of the report is important to make sure that it comes into the learning situation at the appropriate time and that the reports do not all come on the same day or at the end of the unit. Before introducing a unit, the teacher should decide which of the topics included lend themselves to oral reports. This does not preclude spontaneous reports proposed by the students or reports growing out of a group activity. By planning the teacher can make sure that the reports are spaced so that they alternate with other activities. If, during the unit, there is to be a field trip, some interviews, or other out-of-class activities, the findings will probably be excellent material for oral reports. The problem of timing is also partially solved. The report should always be given when the topic to which it is related is being discussed. If a student is not prepared to give his report at that time, it might better be omitted as an oral presentation than delayed. It is seldom good to have more than one or two reports on the same day. Probably in no single unit should all students be required to give a report.

## TYPES OF ORAL REPORTS

*Informal, incidental reports*—Too often we think of oral reports as formal presentations made by an individual standing before the class. Another kind, which receives little attention but is nevertheless useful, is the incidental report. Such a report may be found necessary when, during the class discussion, a question arises on which there is a lack of knowledge on the part of the class, disagreement on facts, or merely additional information someone desires. It may need only a sentence or two or possibly a paragraph of explanation. A student may volunteer or be assigned to look up the information. When he reports he should be prepared to restate the question, give a clear and definite answer, and cite his source or sources of information. Emphasis on the need for doing such an assignment well and on its contribution to the class discussion can foster a respect for its importance. Using the incidental report with slow and shy students is a good way to prepare them for making more formal and longer reports at a later date.

*Formal reports*—Once an individual has selected a topic for an oral report, he should check his procedure with the teacher. Together they should discuss the sources of information to be consulted and the method of taking notes. When the research is completed, they should



consult together again on the organization of the material. After that has been completed, the student should practice his talk before the teacher or one or two friends. His interest is likely to be further aroused and more improvement will probably result if he can record his report on a wire or tape recorder. This will enable him to hear himself and to make suggestions for his own improvement. Young people like to record and play back reports; moreover the machines are new enough in many schools to lend newness to and enthusiasm for oral reports. By recording and listening to their own reports, students can check their grammar, enunciation, pronunciation, and organization. Not the least important, they can check the question, "Would I like to sit and listen to this report?" If their answer at first hearing is "No," they have a real motive to improve their report.

The use of "props" during the presentation of an oral report not only creates audience interest but also gives the shy student something to take his thoughts off himself. There are a number of ways in which reports may be varied by the use of informal stage properties and other devices.

One variation on the individual report is for a student to prepare a bulletin board and plan his report around it. The bulletin board can, for example, consist of pictures by American artists to illustrate a talk on twentieth century American art. Or a series of pictures can be used to summarize a news event of prolonged interest.

A student might use the opaque projector in giving his report. Charts, graphs, cartoons, pictures, or maps help to illustrate or prove a point; these can readily be projected on the screen for all to see clearly, thus facilitating the explanation. A student who is comparing the cost of living in 1950 with the cost of living in 1940, for example, can use a "Road Map of Industry" graph on the topic.<sup>2</sup> In any report concerning people and events in a small country such as Palestine, it is helpful to project a map on the screen, for it is difficult to see such small areas on the usual wall map. Pictures of people, showing costumes, work, recreation, education, architecture, help to clarify and to make a report more interesting. Students find it interesting to trace a period in world history through cartoons.

A suitable filmstrip or slide can be used to illustrate a topic: for example, the filmstrip, "A City in the Middle Ages," to illustrate a topic on

how the people lived during the Middle Ages; or the filmstrip, "The Universal Declaration of Human Rights," to pictorialize some aspects of an oral report on that document.

Students can also make effective use of the blackboard in presenting oral reports. One student, for example, developed an interesting talk on the life of Napoleon by drawing stick-figure cartoons on the board. A graph may be placed on the board for the purpose of illustration or as a major part of the report. Diagrams are also helpful.

A report on the music of a nation is much more effective if the reporter plays records to illustrate his story. For example, a topic on American music is much more interesting if it is developed with the use of recordings of American folklore. Recordings of Negro spirituals, songs by Stephen Foster, selections of American jazz, or selections from American opera, also add to interest and illustrate the topic. The *You Are There* series and the *I Can Hear It Now* series offer excellent opportunities for using recordings during an oral report.<sup>3</sup>

A student might report on an interview with a person in the community on a question such as the work of the welfare department. One student who volunteered to do such a report brought a case worker to class and interviewed her there. The other students were asked to join in the discussion at the close of the interview.

*Group oral reports*—Students will often do in groups what they hesitate to do alone. Consequently, a fairly frequent use of group oral reports has value.

One form of group oral report is the panel discussion. It lends itself to presentation of facts and to discussion of different points of view. For example, members of the panel might discuss the arguments for and against a compulsory health insurance program, including explanations of "middle way" approaches such as that proposed by Senator Douglas. The panel discussion is mentioned here only as one form of group reporting, for it is a technique in and of itself.

Another type of group discussion is that which grows out of a group project. For instance, an eighth-grade class studying United States territorial possessions divided into groups, each assuming the responsibility for obtaining information concerning one of our major possessions. Their assignment included factual information which all of the class was to be responsible for

<sup>2</sup> Bi-weekly from National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 247 Park Ave., New York 17.

<sup>3</sup> Columbia Records, Inc., Educational Dept., 1473 Barnum Ave., Bridgeport, Conn.

learning, a booklet, a bulletin board, and an oral report. The reports varied. One group organized its report around a bulletin board on which were photographs of the topography, cities, people, and industries of Alaska. Another group showed a movie on the people of Hawaii and supplemented it with further information and explanation. When they were through, the class knew, among other things, all about poi except how it tasted. A third group did their oral report in the form of an interview with class members who pretended that they were natives telling about Puerto Rico to a group of visitors.

### EVALUATION

**M**OST students want to know immediately whether or not they have done a good job when they have undertaken a project. If they receive adverse criticisms, it adds to their feeling of security to know at once what their weaknesses are and what they can do to correct them. Therefore, evaluation should follow immediately after the presentation of the oral report. The criteria already developed should be used for self-evaluation and then for group evaluation. Self-evaluation should be attempted first, because, as mentioned in the section on developing criteria, the attitude of class members is most important in this phase of using the oral report technique. The teacher's evaluation, also based upon the student-teacher developed criteria, should be for the purpose of pointing out the strengths and weaknesses of the report which were omitted by the other evaluations.

At the conclusion of the unit, a class discussion would be desirable regarding the contribution that the oral reports made to the success of the unit. Students might also consider what topics might better have been left out and what topics might profitably have been reported on that weren't. The latter might take the form of recommendations to the next year's class about good report topics for that particular unit.

### SUGGESTED READING

There is very little material on the use of oral reports in social studies classes. The following list of references may be helpful.

- "How To Get Worth-While Student Reports." *Civic Training*. November 7-11, 1949. American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio.
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### TEACHING WORLD HISTORY TO POOR READERS

(Continued from page 225)

#### USE AS SIMPLE READING MATERIALS AS POSSIBLE

**A**LTHOUGH the problem of finding simple reading materials is harder in world history than in American history, it is not unsolvable. For the poor readers the tenth-grade teacher can resort to books prepared for the middle grades. Rejection by adolescents of such materials because they look like "kid books" is less likely today than formerly. Perhaps the fact that many books for adults these days have the kind of format previously associated only with volumes for children has influenced this situation. Pamphlet series such as the *Unit Study Books* published by Charles E. Merrill Company for the middle grades and the *Unitext* books of

Row, Peterson and Company are most useful and inexpensive. Teachers will find helpful also the great variety of pertinent and simple materials cited by Alice R. Brooks.<sup>3</sup>

The importance of doing an effective job in teaching world history to all, including the poor readers, cannot be overstressed. The responsibilities of citizenship today extend beyond national boundaries. These youngsters are fast being placed in the role of citizens of the world. The need to help them focus clearly on the far horizon is imperative.

<sup>3</sup> Brooks, Alice R. "Reading Materials for the Elementary School," in *Improving the Teaching of World History*, *op. cit.*, p. 173-85.

# Notes and News

## National Council Committees

The personnel of standing committees of the National Council for the Social Studies is given below, together with the year of expiration of the term of office. Where no year is given, the term of office is for one year and expires December 31, 1951.

### *Academic Freedom*

Arch Troelstrup, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo., chairman  
Anna Appleby, High School, St. Petersburg, Fla.  
Russell Broadhead, Wayne University, Detroit  
Ralph Adams Brown, State University of New York at Cortland  
George Engberg, University of Cincinnati  
Kopple C. Friedman, North High School, Minneapolis  
Ruth Gavian, Brooklyn College  
Floyd Haight, High School, Dearborn, Mich.  
Emlyn Jones, Seattle (Washington) Public Schools  
Ray Lussenhop, Austin High School, Chicago  
George Reavis, Field Enterprises, Inc., Chicago

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Frederick H. Stutz, Cornell University  
Kenneth B. Thurston, Indiana University  
Lewis Paul Todd, editor, *Social Education*  
William G. Tyrrell, Columbia University

### *Auditing*

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### *Budget*

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Stanley E. Dimond, University of Michigan  
Stella B. Kern, Chicago Public Schools  
Myrtle Roberts, Woodrow Wilson High School, Dallas, Texas (ex-officio)  
Julian Aldrich, New York University (ex-officio)  
John Haefner, University High School, Iowa City, Iowa (ex-officio)

### *Curriculum*

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Morris Ahrens, Board of Education, Battle Creek, Mich.  
Julian Aldrich, New York University  
Elsie Beck, Department of Education, Detroit  
Harold D. Drummond, George Peabody College for Teachers  
Frank J. Dressler, Board of Education, Buffalo, N.Y.  
William B. Fink, Teachers College, Columbia University

Eunice Johns, Gary (Ind.) High School  
Marlow Markert, Jennings J. High School, St. Louis, Mo.  
Dorothy McClure, New York City

### *Executive*

Myrtle Roberts, Woodrow Wilson High School, Dallas, Texas, chairman (ex-officio)  
Lewis Paul Todd, editor, *Social Education* (ex-officio)  
Mary Kelty, Washington, D.C.

### *Nominations*

Jonathan McLendon, University of Alabama, chairman, 1951  
Linwood Chase, Boston University, 1952  
Howard Cummings, U. S. Office of Education, 1951  
Burr Phillips, University of Wisconsin, 1953  
I. James Quillen, Leland Stanford University, 1952  
Edith West, University of Minnesota High School, 1953  
John H. Haefner, University High School, Iowa City, Iowa (ex-officio)

### *Publications*

Edwin R. Carr, University of Colorado, chairman, 1953  
Jack Allen, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1951  
Edith West, University of Minnesota High School, 1952

### *Publications Planning*

Edwin R. Carr, University of Colorado, chairman, 1953  
Jack Allen, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1951  
Helen McCracken Carpenter, State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.  
Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive-Secretary, Washington  
Lewis Paul Todd, editor, *Social Education*, Washington  
Myrtle Roberts, President, Dallas  
Edith West, University of Minnesota High School, 1952

The personnel of *ad hoc* Committees to work on special National Council problems is given below. These appointments are for 1951.

### *Commission on a Policy Statement for the NCSS*

W. Francis English, University of Missouri, chairman  
Kenneth Cooper, George Peabody College for Teachers  
William B. Fink, Teachers College, Columbia University  
Lawrence Giles, University of Minnesota  
Lawrence O. Haaby, University of Tennessee  
James G. Harris, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.  
Ruth M. Robinson, Cleveland Public Schools  
Stanley Wronski, State Teachers College, Ellensburg, Wash.

### *Committee on Election Procedure*

Stanley E. Dimond, University of Michigan, chairman  
Ray Brown, Board of Education, Los Angeles  
Julian Aldrich, New York University  
John Haefner, University High School, Iowa City, Iowa  
Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, Washington  
Robert Reid, National Education Association, Washington  
Paul Seehausen, Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Ind.

### *Committee on Membership Planning*

Robert H. Reid, National Education Association, Washington, chairman  
Harry Bard, Department of Education, Baltimore



Eleanor W. Thompson, Philadelphia High School for Girls  
Moe Frankel, Clifford J. Scott High School, East Orange, N.J.

John O. Steinberg, Garden City (Long Island, N.Y.) High School

Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, Washington (ex-officio)

Myrtle Roberts, President, Dallas (ex-officio)

*Committee on Relation of State and Local Councils to the NCSS*

Harry Bard, Department of Education, Baltimore, chairman

Everett Augspurger, Cleveland Public Schools

Julia Emery, Wichita (Kansas) High School East

Shirley Engle, University of Indiana

Paul L. Glatzent, Department of Education, Erie, Pa.

John L. Harr, State Teachers College, Maryville, Mo.

Ruth M. Johnson, Wisconsin High School, Madison

Hazel Phillips, Argo Community High School, Argo, Ill.

Roy Price, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y.

*Committee on Business Sponsored Materials*

Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, Washington, chairman

Edwin R. Carr, University of Colorado

W. Linwood Chase, Boston University

Stanley E. Dimond, University of Michigan

Ruth Robinson, Cleveland Public Schools

Arch W. Troelstrup, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.

Ryland W. Crary, Teachers College, Columbia University

*Committee on Student Exchange Within the United States*

Eldon Mason, American Red Cross, Washington, chairman

Harold L. Smith, 223 Poplar St., Wyandotte, Mich.

Hazel Phillips, Argo Township High School, Argo, Ill.

*Committee on Study of German Textbooks*

Burr W. Phillips, University of Wisconsin, chairman

Robert LaFollette, State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.

Walter Mohr, George School, George School, Pa.

Chester Easum, University of Wisconsin

## Nominations

### NCSS Officers for 1952

At the 31st Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies to be held in Detroit November 22-24, the officers for 1952 will be elected.

It is not too early to begin thinking about suggestions for officers, or to send your nominations to the NCSS nominating committee. You will find the membership of this committee listed in this issue of *Social Education*. NCSS members should take this request for suggesting names as a serious responsibility. Your nominating committee needs your assistance. In suggesting names, please submit a brief biographical sketch of your nominee and indicate why you believe the person you suggest would make a good officer.

Candidates are to be nominated for the office of president, first vice-president, second vice-president, and three members of the Board of Directors.

Send your nominations to Jonathon C. McLendon, chairman of the NCSS nominating committee, University of Alabama, University, Alabama.

### 31st Annual Meeting, Detroit, Michigan, November 22-24, 1951

The 31st Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held in Detroit, Michigan, November 22-24, 1951, with headquarters at the Staler Hotel. All social studies workers are urged to make plans to attend. A rich and varied program is being planned to provide inspiration and concrete help to all participants. This national meeting will also feature an extensive exhibit of teaching materials.

### Curriculum Committee

In the last issue of *Social Education* the Curriculum Committee solicited suggestions from the membership for the volume, *Social Studies for Older Children: Programs for the Middle Grades*, now in preparation with Loretta Klee as editor.

Announcement is here made of another volume on which work is moving rapidly. It is *Social Studies for Young Adults: Programs in the Junior College and Lower Division Level*, edited by William G. Tyrrell. It will deal with the social studies or civic education aspects of general education for persons roughly between the ages of 18 and 22 who are enrolled in a regular college program especially adapted to the needs of young adults. The program may be that of a terminal college or the first two years of a four-year institution.

Attention will focus on the implications for social instruction inherent in the socio-personal needs and interests of young adults as well as on special problems arising in this instruction. Such matters as the preparation of social studies teachers for this level, vertical articulation of these years within the social studies area, the relation of the social studies to the total college program, avenues for functional community participation and instructional materials will be discussed. The book will include the description of programs from various colleges illustrating

different approaches. The editor will appreciate receiving suggestions of points that should be included and school programs that might be presented. Write William G. Tyrrell, 707 Hamilton Hall, Columbia University, New York 27. H.M.C.C.

### Chicago

The Chicago Council for the Social Studies held its annual regional conference in the LaSalle hotel on Saturday, March 3, 1951. The program was built around the theme, "Progress in Teaching-Learning Experience." Paul Kiniery, assistant dean, Loyola University, discussed "How Honest Can We History Teachers Be?" and Earl Johnson of the University of Chicago spoke on "The Social Studies Teacher as Therapist." Richard Browne of the Central Council acted as chairman of a panel discussion of "Contributions to the Teaching-Learning Experience." Panel members included Ruby Harris, Eastern Illinois State College; Dennis O'Shea, Rand McNally and Co.; Eloise Requa, Library of International Relations; Walter Mason, Scott, Foresman and Co.; and Joseph Dickman, Encyclopaedia Britannica. S.B.K.

### Pinellas County, Florida

Officers for 1951 for the Pinellas County Council for the Social Studies are Jack Fletcher, president; Anna Appleby, vice-president; and Marion Shambaugh, secretary-treasurer. The winter issue of their bulletin, *The Pinsostuc*, announces an open meeting held in March at the time of W. Linwood Chase's (Boston University) visit to Florida.

### Detroit

The Social Studies Institute held at the Book-Cadillac Hotel on February 3, 1951, was sponsored by the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club and the Department of Social Studies of the Detroit Public Schools. General session speakers included David Henry, President, Wayne University; Anne Campbell and George W. Stark, both of the *Detroit News*. At the sectional discussion groups scheduled for the morning, two demonstration lessons were presented and two panel discussions were conducted. A demonstration lesson at the elementary school level was presented by Robert Larsen of the Hubert School, and Elizabeth Neeb of the Durfee Intermediate School, conducted the demonstration lesson at the intermediate school level.

William Stirton of Cass High School was chairman of a panel discussion of "Industrial Detroit" and Marquis Shattuck acted as chairman at the panel discussion of "Historical Detroit."

### New Jersey

The New Jersey Council for the Social Studies, in cooperation with Johnson and Johnson of New Brunswick, N.J., sponsored an all-day workshop for the social studies teachers of New Jersey at the Rutgers University Chapel on Thursday, April 19, 1951. The program centered on "Human Relations in Modern Business." Key figures of the Johnson and Johnson company described their management philosophy, training program, personnel practices, labor relations, labor organization, selection and placement techniques, health and security program, and their salary and wage procedures. The latest psychological approaches to group cooperation in industry were demonstrated. Teachers participated in a general discussion on each subject. Each teacher present received a copy of the booklet, *Human Relations in Modern Business*, authored by American business, labor, educational, and religious leaders and published by Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. MF

### Social Science Conference

The Eleventh Annual Conference for Teachers of the Social Studies in high schools and junior colleges will be held at the University of Chicago, June 27, 28, and 29. The theme of the conference is to be "The Social Studies and World Understanding."

Speakers include Kermit Eby, Robert Redfield, D. Gale Johnson, and Earl S. Johnson, all of the University of Chicago; St. Clair Drake of Roosevelt College; and Clifton Utley, well-known commentator of the National Broadcasting Company.

Meetings are scheduled for 2:00 P.M. and 8:00 P.M. There will be no charge. Teachers, curriculum directors, principals, and deans are cordially invited to attend. Programs may be obtained by writing to Earl S. Johnson, Box 511, 1126 East 59th St., Chicago 37.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Contributors to this issue: Helen McCracken Carpenter, Stella B. Kern, and Moe Frankel.

# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph Adams Brown

## Your America

The Grolier Society, Inc., 2 West 45th St., New York 19, has available for sale to social studies teachers a set of ten pamphlets entitled *Your America* (prices range from \$3.00 for a single set to \$2.50 a set for orders of 500 sets or over, plus the transportation charges; requests for further information should be sent directly to the Grolier Society).

This series of pamphlets was prepared for the Bureau of Naval Personnel by *Building America*. The avowed purpose of the series is to "impart a better understanding and appreciation of American democracy, its concepts, ideals, and practical operation, and to develop in the men and women of the Navy a willingness and an ability to assume their share of active, responsible citizenship."

Each of the over-size pamphlets is 24 pages long. They all contain a profusion of maps, graphs, charts, and photographs, as well as a short list for further reading. The reading lists are not especially valuable, and most high school teachers will wish to supplement them with a wide variety of current materials in a greater range of reading difficulty. The illustrations, of all types, however, are extremely valuable and help to make this a most unusual and useful series. The titles are: *Democracy and Totalitarianism*; *Roots of American Loyalty*; *Foundation of American Democracy*; *Government by Ballot*; *Democracy in Our Everyday Life*; *The Privileges of American Citizenship*; *The Responsibilities of American Citizenship in Peacetime*; *Responsibilities of American Citizenship in Wartime*; and *The Place of the Armed Forces in Our Democracy*.

## Our Department of State and Its Policy

At a time when the work of our Department of State is more important than ever before, we are faced with both a lack of confidence in its measures and leadership and an ignorance of its work in the past as well as in the present. Thus in terms of national security and of national solidarity, a 100-page pamphlet recently issued

by the Department of State is of unusual value—*Our Foreign Policy* (Department of State Publication 3972, Division of Publications, Office of Public Affairs, Department of State, Washington 25; free).

The pamphlet is divided into four main sections: our foreign policy; toward national security; toward economic well-being; and toward wider freedom. The section on foreign policy is again subdivided into three parts: its roots; what makes it; and who makes it. Under national security, the pamphlet discusses both the long-range and the immediate program.

The entire pamphlet is well organized and is written in a style and a vocabulary that should be both pleasant and readable to average high school students—or to the better students in the junior high school. Regardless of particular points of view that are expressed, and with which individual teachers may or may not agree, this pamphlet provides a wealth of factual material and much that is provocative of thought and discussion.

## Miscellaneous Pamphlets

*Foreign Policy Reports*. Mention is frequently made in this section of the various publications of the Foreign Policy Association (Midston House, 22 East 38th St., New York 16). The *Foreign Policy Reports*, issued twice a month, are both an excellent means of enabling the teacher to keep in touch with world developments and a source of continuing information that should be preserved in every high school or social studies library. They cost 25 cents each, or \$5.00 for an annual subscription. It is recommended that you send for a list of current titles.

*Life Adjustment Booklets*. These are among the more useful, at least at the secondary school level, of the many excellent publications of the Science Research Associates, Inc. (228 South Wabash Ave., Chicago 4). A few of the more recent titles are listed below, and interested teachers should write for additional information at the address given above. *Looking Ahead to Marriage*, by Clifford R. Adams; *Choosing Your*



*Own Career*, by J. Anthony Humphreys; *Discovering Your Real Interests*, by G. Frederic Kuder and Blanche B. Paulson; *Getting Along with Others*, by Helen Shacter; *Growing up Socially*, by Ellis Weitzman; and *Should You Go to College?* by W. Lloyd Warner and Robert J. Havighurst.

*Using Current Material.* With greater emphasis upon the use of current materials in all phases of the curriculum, there is need for guidance on such questions as: Who should select current materials used in schools? By what criteria? How can the use of current materials be more effective in classrooms? How can schools procure current materials while they are still current?

These are some of the questions for which answers are supplied in a new pamphlet, *Using Current Materials* (Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front St., Columbus 15, Ohio; free to teachers and administrators).

*Social Action* (published monthly except July and August by the Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches and by the Commission on Christian Social Action of the Evangelical and Reformed Church, 289 Fourth Ave., New York 10; \$1.50 per year; 15 cents per copy) is another pamphlet of potential usefulness to the social studies teacher. At present the issues are devoted to the study of the question, *Decisions Christians Face in the World Crisis*. The last three numbers are:

No. III—*American Leadership in a Revolutionary World*, by Herman F. Reissig. (As with all of the issues in this series, the suggestions for additional reading are very valuable.)

No. IV—*Race Versus Reason in South Africa*, by Julius Lewin.

No. V—*Foreign Policy and Public Opinion*. This last issue, the product of "group journalism," considers such topics as: public opinion is crucial; Christians and the centrality of opinion; opinions are held in groups; communication forms opinion; communication appeals to values; and present opinion and world conflict.

*Platform* is prepared as a public service by *Newsweek's* Club and Educational Bureaus (152 West 42nd St., New York 18) and appears monthly, September through May. It offers a pro and con discussion of today's most controversial issues. This special service of *Newsweek* is distributed without cost to a limited number of club officers, educators, speakers, and civic leaders who use it for the benefit of group discussion. Additional or individual subscriptions are now

available for \$1.00 a year. Two of the recent issues consider: *Is Point Four an Antidote for the Cold War?* and *What Foreign Policy Best Safeguards Our Freedom?* Send for a list of the available titles in this series.

*Your Human Rights*, with an introduction by Eleanor Roosevelt (Ellner Publishers, Inc., 151 East 19th St., New York; 25 cents) is a well-printed, beautifully illustrated booklet that includes the full text of the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed December 10, 1948. The unusual illustrations will attract the attention of high school students, and it may thus become comparatively easy to get them to read and discuss the Declaration.

*United States Civil Defense* (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25; 25 cents), is a key document in our effort to provide a national civil defense program. Teachers of the social studies have an obligation to familiarize themselves and their students with the basic pattern set forth in this 160-page booklet.

*Extra-Class Activities for All Pupils*, by Ellsworth Tompkins (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25; 20 cents), is another of the valuable booklets prepared by the Office of Education in the last few years. This publication deals with the organization, administration, supervision, and evaluation of extra-class activities in secondary schools.

*Industrial relations.* Waldo E. Fisher's *The Expanding Role of Government and Labor in the American Economy*, Bulletin No. 17, Industrial Relations Section (California Institute of Technology, Pasadena 4; \$1.00), is the latest pamphlet in a series which has little publicity but which the modern problems teacher should know about. The author discusses such topics as developments in the American labor movement, motivation in modern economic life, and the limitations of centralized control of business and industry. Write for a list of titles of other bulletins in the series.

*Bibliography on civil defense.* The U. S. Atomic Energy Commission has prepared for the National Security Resources Board a reading list that will be useful to many social studies teachers and school librarians. *Civil Defense Against Atomic Warfare: A Selected Reading List* (Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25; 10 cents) is "designed to make available a list of sources of unclassified scientific and technical data useful as background information in planning civilian defense against atomic bombing." Another list that might be useful in con-

nection with the above is *Selected Bibliography on Atomic Energy* (Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25; 15 cents).

*Guide to government documents.* Ellen Jackson, Documents Librarian of the University of Colorado Libraries, has prepared *A Brief Guide to Government Documents*, issued as No. 7 of the Occasional Papers of the University of Illinois Library School (free while present supply lasts; address Dr. Herbert Goldhor, editor, Occasional Papers, University of Illinois Library School, Urbana). The following topics are dealt with: the acquisition, classification, and records of documents; how to find documents of the federal government; how to find the documents of other governments.

*The Lobbyist.* Franklin L. Burdette has written a useful little pamphlet entitled *Lobbyists in Action* (National Capitol Publishers, Box 7706, Washington 4; 75 cents). This is designed to give a quick, comprehensive picture of the lobbying problem together with some comments on proposed changes. It is well illustrated with cartoons and with reproductions of legal provisions, report forms, and registration forms. Has a selected bibliography.

*Scandinavia.* That pressures from the Soviet Union on Scandinavia, the strategic northern flank of Europe, are being intensified is asserted by Franklin D. Scott of Northwestern University in *Scandinavia Today*, most recent pamphlet in the Headline Series of the Foreign Policy Association (22 East 38th St., New York 16; 35 cents).

*Community study.* The Community Chests and Councils of America (155 East 44th St., New York 17) offers a free pamphlet that will prove useful to all social studies teachers concerned with community study—*Teamwork in Our Town Through a Community Welfare Council* (free). Some of the topics discussed are: Why a welfare council? Who will belong to the council? What does a council really do? How is the council set up? How does the council get results? and steps in getting started.

*Social studies in the elementary school.* The California State Department of Education, Sacramento 14, has available two pamphlets that social studies in the elementary school will find useful: *Home and School Work Together for Young Children*, a 55-page, illustrated pamphlet with seven chapters and a bibliography; and *A Study of Early Childhood Education in California*, by Faith Smither. Each is priced at 25 cents, with special quantity discounts.

## Strengthening Our Government

A wealth of material suitable for classroom use is available for study and discussion of our present government and its improvement, as recommended by the Hoover Report. It is unfortunate that all social studies teachers, regardless of the subject matter which they are now teaching, do not have access to this material.

Nearly a thousand Americans have organized a Citizen's Committee for Action on the Hoover Report. The publications department of this organization (Citizen's Committee for the Hoover Report, Publications Department, 15 West 46th St., New York 19) releases up to 50 copies of each publication free of charge for use in classes or in discussion groups. This material is concrete and vivid enough in its description of our Federal Government to arouse and sustain the interest of high school students.

The materials available include reprints from four popular magazines, "The Story Behind the Hoover Commission"; "Three Billion Dollars a Year for Federal Waste"; "Is Our Government Too Big?" and "Big Government, Can It Be Managed Efficiently?"

Of special interest to teachers of the social studies is a teaching unit entitled "The Hoover Report and Good Government," prepared by Noel Deutcher, chairman of the social studies department, Washington Irving High School, Tarrytown, N.Y. Of equal interest is the six-page leaflet, "The Heart of the Hoover Report on the Department of Agriculture." Other leaflets cover such topics as personnel management, the post office, budgeting and accounting, veterans affairs, commerce, the treasury, medical activities, and the interior department. Another pamphlet, "Our First Line of Defense in the National Budget" analyzes the large-scale waste in the administration of the federal government, giving concrete examples of such waste.

This is but a small part of the material that can be obtained from the Citizen's Committee. Teachers should write directly to them, at the address given above, for complete lists of pamphlet and audio-visual material available.

*Basic Information on the Reorganization of the Executive Branch, 1912-1948*, by W. Brooke Graves (*Public Affairs Bulletin*, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C. 425 p. \$3.00) is of unusual value to teachers who intend to secure and make use of the materials from the Citizen's Committee. This massive book was originally prepared for the Hoover Commission and was first published two years ago.

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## Film of the Month

*Atomic Alert.* 15 minutes; black and white; purchase price, \$70; rental, one- to three-day use, \$3.50. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill.

Recently we chose as our film of the month *Pattern for Survival*, an adult level film telling what to do in case of atomic attack. Our film for this month deals with the same subject on the child's level.

*Atomic Alert* explains in simple language the benefit and danger of atomic fission. First, it shows children *how* to protect themselves and *why* effective atomic defense ultimately rests on the ability of each individual to do his share. Secondly, the film quiets the fear that an atomic bomb is synonymous with annihilation. It does this by showing that proper protective measures are perfectly possible and practical.

Like *Pattern for Survival* and *You Can Beat the A-Bomb* (McGraw-Hill), this film begins by giving a simple explanation of how the bomb works. It then diagrams the effects of the bomb through blast, heat, and radioactivity. With the preliminaries out of the way, *Atomic Alert* gives specific directions concerning what to do in case a bomb falls. Suitable cover in home, school, or on the street is described. Suitable kits for home protection are shown. Most important, pupils are shown how to drop and cover to protect themselves.

*Atomic Alert* was produced in collaboration with the Institute for Nuclear Studies, Division of Physical Sciences of the University of Chicago. Outstanding atomic scientists appear in the film and help to add authority to the advice given.

## Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

Bailey Films, Inc., 2044 North Berendo St., Hollywood 27, Calif.

*Airliner.* 21 minutes; sale price, \$75. Depicts the modern transport plane in actual service.

*Falling Waters of Yosemite.* 10 minutes; sale price, \$36. A visit to Yosemite National Park.

*Frontier Farmers of Alaska.* 18 minutes; sale, \$57.50. The development of the Matanuska Valley.

*Learning Democracy Through School Community Proj-*

*ets.* 20 minutes; sale, \$75. How typical schools and communities are providing opportunities for young people and adults to participate in special projects involving realistic democratic procedures.

*Natives of Guatemala.* 12 minutes; sale, \$40. Similarities and differences in the beliefs and ways of living of the people of North and South America.

*What Are Machines?* 10 minutes; sale, \$40. What are machines, how do we get them, and how do they change our ways of life?

British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

*Daybreak in Udi.* 45 minutes; rental, \$6.00. The building of a maternity home in Nigeria is used as an example of the work of a district officer.

Bureau of Mines, Graphic Services Section, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13.

*Treasure from the Sea.* 11 minutes; color; free loan. The processing and uses of magnesium.

CIO Department of Education and Research, 718 Jackson Pl., N.W., Washington, D.C.

*Union at Work.* 20 minutes; rental, \$4.00. Gives a clear, candid picture of Union activities.

Ideal Pictures, 257 East 37th St., New York 16.

*Our America.* 29 minutes; free loan. Comparisons of American industry, past and present.

*'Round South America.* 16 minutes; color; rental, \$3.50. A tour of the high spots of South America.

Institute of Visual Training, 40 East 49th St., New York 17.

*Democracy's Diary.* 18 minutes; free loan. Available only to schools in New York, New Jersey, New England, and Pennsylvania. The story of the printing of *The New York Times*.

*For Us the Living.* 20 minutes; color; free loan. A visit to Washington, D.C., with emphasis on the health and safety functions of our government.

*Journey to Banana Land.* 21 minutes; color; free loan. The story of the countries and culture of Middle America. Banana raising from planting to harvesting.

*This Is New York.* 21 minutes; free loan. A guided tour of New York City.

March of Time Forum Films, 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17.

*Man in the 20th Century.* 20 minutes; rental: apply. A survey of the problems which face the world today, the scientific advances and the tensions which have accompanied their introduction into our lives.

Religious Film Association, Inc., 45 Aster Pl., New York 3.

*Prejudice.* 58 minutes; rental, \$12. Shows how prejudice can operate and leads to an understanding of intergroup relations.



*Toru's People.* 25 minutes; color; rental, \$12. A penetrating glimpse into the historical and cultural backgrounds of Japan as well as current economic and political problems.

Shell Oil Co., 50 West 50th St., New York 20.

*Birth of an Oil Field.* 20 minutes; color; free loan. The full story of man's struggle to get crude oil from the earth.

## Film Strips

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

*British Aids Colonial Progress.* 32 frames; \$3.00. This filmstrip surveys the practical application of the second Colonial Development and Welfare Act.

*Britain 1900-1950.* 29 frames; \$3.00. A summary of Britain's history over the past 50 years.

*A Century of Progress in Medicine.* 31 frames; \$3.00. The discoveries of Pasteur, Koch, Roentgen, the Curies.

*A Century of Progress in Power.* 28 frames; \$3.00. How inventions of a century have made possible the electric, oil, gas, and atomic plants of today.

*A Century of Progress in Rail Transportation.* 35 frames; \$3.00. Traces growth of railroads and their effect upon a nation's economy.

*A Century of Progress in Road Transportation.* 35 frames; \$3.00. The effect of the pneumatic tire and internal combustion engine upon transportation.

COLONIAL EMPIRE SERIES. \$3.00 each.

*Battle Against Disease,* 42 frames; *Battle Against Poverty,* 29 frames; *Colonial Economic Development,* 37 frames; *Introducing the Colonies,* 51 frames; *Introducing the Caribbean Colonies,* 42 frames; *Introducing East and Central Africa,* 45 frames; *Introducing Malaya and Borneo,* 39 frames; *Introducing the Pacific Islands,* 38 frames; *Introducing West Africa,* 30 frames.

*The English Cottage.* 41 frames; \$3.00. The architecture and construction of the timbered and stone cottage.

*The English Inn.* 40 frames; \$3.00. The inn's place in English social history.

*The English Manor House.* 39 frames; \$3.00. A selection of famous gardens, galleries, and libraries.

*History in Stones.* 36 frames; \$3.00. Britain's history traced through famous remains.

*Home of Parliament.* 30 frames; \$3.00. Scenes of the Mother of Parliaments.

Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill.

AMERICAN HISTORY. Set of 6 filmstrips, \$16.20.

*Early Settlers of New England; Planters of Colonial Virginia; Kentucky Pioneers; Flatboatmen of the Frontier; Life in Old Louisiana; Pioneers of the Plains.*

BASIC ECONOMICS. Set of 8 color filmstrips, \$43.20.

*Living and Working Without Money; Money; Money Goes To Work; New Ways To Use Money; Money and Panic; Money and Government; Too Much Money; Too Little Money.*

CHILDREN OF MANY LANDS. Series One, set of 8 filmstrips, \$21.60.

*Eskimo Children; Navajo Children; French-Canadian Children; Colonial Children; Mexican Children; Children of Holland; Children of Switzerland; Children of China.*

CHILDREN OF MANY LANDS. Series Two, set of 6 filmstrips, \$16.20.

*Japanese Children; English Children; Irish Children;*

*French Children; Spanish Children; Norwegian Children.*

CLOTHING AND SHELTER. Set of 6 filmstrips, \$16.20.

*Cotton; Wool; Making Shoes; Building a House; Making Bricks for Houses; Making Glass for Houses.*

OUR NORTH AMERICAN NEIGHBORS. Set of 8 filmstrips, \$21.60.

*Maritime Provinces of Canada; Industrial Provinces of Canada; Prairie Provinces of Canada; Pacific Canada; Alaska; Land of Mexico; Central America; West Indies.*

OUR COMMUNITY WORKERS. Set of 4 filmstrips, \$10.80.

*Policeman; Fireman; Mailman; Doctor.*

REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY—THE UNITED STATES. Set of 5 filmstrips, \$16.20.

*The Northeastern States; The Southeastern States; The Middle States; The Northwestern States; The Far Western States.*

SOIL CONSERVATION. Set of 8 filmstrips, \$21.60.

*How Long Will It Last? How Soil Is Formed; Plant Life and the Soil; Water and the Soil; Animal Life and the Soil; Minerals in the Soil; How Man Has used the Soil; How Man Conserves the Soil.*

Eye Gate House, Inc., 330 West 42nd St., New York 18.

CITIES OF OUR COUNTRY. Series of 9 color filmstrips, sale price per set, \$22.50.

*Birmingham, Industrial Centre of the South; Los Angeles, the Beautiful Southwest; Boston, City of Tradition; Chicago, at the Crossroads of the Nation; Why and How Cities Grow; Detroit, Midwest Centre of Industry; Seattle, Typical of the Northwest; New York, Our Great Metropolis; Houston, a City Expanding.*

Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 West 120th St., New York.

*One Day with Billy,* 27 frames; color; \$6.00. Billy is a "rejected child" who is aggressive toward his fellows. The filmstrip raises problems concerning the diagnosis and treatment of his difficulty.

L. W. Singer Co., Inc., Syracuse, N.Y.

WEATHER. Set of 3 filmstrips; sale price: apply.

*We Learn About Weather; Changes in Weather; Understanding Weather Conditions.*

Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS. Set of 4 filmstrips; sale price per set, \$11. Show correct "How-To-Do-It" metal working methods.

## Maps and Charts

Write to the George F. Cram Co. (730 East Washington St., Indianapolis 7, Ind.) for full information concerning their "Markable-Kleenable" maps and globes. These maps may be marked or drawn upon with a marking pencil which wipes off quickly and easily with a soft cloth. These maps are designed to make learning an active process and to help the pupil develop concepts of the world gradually, without the confusion caused by complicated maps.

"See All the World—Here in America" is a full-color wall display, 8 feet in length, depicting nine of America's most unusual spots and com-

paring them with nine of the world's most interesting places. It is free from Greyhound Information Center, P.O. Box 815, Chicago 90.

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A new National Geographic map is always a welcome addition to our teaching material. The latest map of "Asia and Adjacent Areas" presents up-to-date geographical background for an understanding of this important area of the world. The mapped area contains 30 percent of the land surface of the globe, the home of 80 percent of the world's people. The map is printed in ten colors, is 37 x 29 inches in size, and bears 7,646 place names. Copies may be obtained by writing the National Geographic Society, 16th and M Sts., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. The price is 50 cents each on paper \$1.00 on linen.

A free map entitled "Generalized Map of Soil Erosion in the United States" may be obtained by writing to the U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

A wall chart, 27 x 41 inches in size and printed in full color, is the latest teaching aid offered free by the Education Dept., Pan-American Coffee Bureau, 120 Wall St., New York 5. Entitled "A Two-Way Street Between the Americas," this chart shows the principal commodities exchanged between North and Latin America. A student manual accompanies the chart and tells the significant story of the exchange of goods and services, interchange of people and ideas, and cooperation on hemisphere problems.

### Of All Things

A very useful booklet on *Tape Recordings in the Classroom* is free from Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Co., St. Paul 6, Minn. It is full of interesting pictures and practical tips to teachers of all grades.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art (Fifth Ave. at 82nd St., New York 28) has made available a series of guided visits through the galleries of this famous museum. These visits take the form of full-color but inexpensive miniatures and al-

bums. Sets of pictures now available cover the following subjects: "20th Century American Painters," "Chinese Art," "French Art in the 19th Century," "Early Italian Renaissance Painting," "Late Italian Renaissance Painting," "Art in the Middle Ages." Each album contains 24 miniatures and sells for \$1.00. At the present time subscriptions are being handled by the Book of the Month Club, 345 Hudson St., New York 14, and, for the sake of convenience, two albums costing a total of \$2.00 are sent out each second month, but the subscriptions are terminable at any time at the subscriber's pleasure.

*This Is the UN: Its Actual Voices* is an album of records telling, in documentary form, the story of the UN from 1945 to 1950. Available from Tribune Productions, Inc., 40 East 49th St., New York 17, this album may be had on 10 sides of 5 twelve-inch records playing at the regular speed of 78 rpm, or on two sides of one 33 $\frac{1}{3}$  rpm, twelve-inch record. The price of the 78 rpm album is \$13.90, and the long-playing record costs \$11.75. In an early notice concerning these albums, published in *Social Education*, we erroneously listed the prices as \$15 and \$20. We are glad to bring the corrected price to the attention of our readers.

Two publications available from the Superintendent of Documents (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.) which are of special interest to social studies teachers are: *Educational Exhibits—How To Prepare and Use Them* (Catalog No. A. 1:38:634, 25 cents); and *Motion Pictures on the Other American Republics* (Catalog No. FS 5:4:275/2, 15 cents).

### Helpful Articles

Brockmyer, Irene. "Testing with Pictures." *The Journal of Geography* 50:54-57; February 1951. "Appeals to the pupil . . . easy to work, rapid to check . . . corrects wrong impressions quickly."

Brumbaugh, Florence. "Recordings Bring New Understanding." *Childhood Education* 27:272-73; March 1951. "The making of records affords an opportunity for active participation as well as appreciation through listening."

Collings, Miller R. "Exploring Your Community: A Direct Experience Study." *Journal of Educational Research* 44:225-30; November 1950. Indicates the need for schools to provide more direct experiences for students.

Dow, Sterling. "Illustrations in Textbooks." *Journal of General Education* 5:101-15; January 1951. "An effort is made here to formulate the principles that ought to be applied."

MacDonald, Donald J. "Electric Maps and Charts." *Instructor* 60:23, 81; March 1951. Complete directions for making an electric map.

# Book Reviews

UNDERSTANDING HISTORY: A PRIMER OF HISTORICAL METHOD. By Louis Gottschalk. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950. xix + 290 p. Text edition, \$2.75.

Professor Gottschalk's work is aptly named—it contains the kind of information and thought about the science, art, and philosophy of history which is so essential to its understanding, and it gives an introductory survey of many topics so delightfully that most readers will cry, "More." The monologue which Professor Gottschalk carries on suggests that he has followed his own advice on style—"We may not all be able to put fire into our writing but we can all put our writing into the fire until a version worthy of a better fate appears."

*Understanding History* is divided into eleven chapters which, in turn, are grouped into three parts. Part I, which discusses history generally, can be skimmed by most teachers of history. In Part II Professor Gottschalk discusses methods of historical research, the knowledge of the elements which is so vital to the critical reading and teaching of history that its general neglect in the education of all but college teachers of history is one of the major mysteries of American collegiate and higher education. Here is an opportunity for the teacher who has suffered from this neglect to begin to remedy the deficiency. In this part Professor Gottschalk discusses interestingly the distinctions between primary and original sources, characterizes the major types of primary sources, treats of the chief problems and general rules of external and internal criticism, and advises the beginning students of history how to find a subject and to write upon it.

But most readers will, no doubt, be most interested in Part III, "Theory of History." In Chapter IX, Professor Gottschalk offers writers of history useful suggestions on problems of selection, arrangement, and emphasis—suggestions which are useful to teachers of history as well. In Chapter X he discusses historical causation and its necessary connections with philosophy and with philosophy of history. His suggestion that "consumers" of history use the word "cause" more sparingly, the words "purpose," "motive," "occasion," "antecedant," and "means" more, might well be more widely followed. The distinction between the "influence" of a person and

his "posthumous reputation" or his "conspicuousness" is also worthy of note.

Perhaps the pages of this most excellent primer that are of most immediate worth to most readers of *Social Education* are found in Chapter XI, "The Historian and the Problems of the Present." Here are treated historical "types," the generalizing function of the historian, and the value of the historical method (and temper) for the social scientist. Professor Gottschalk does not advocate that historians and history teachers double as astrologers, but he does suggest that history may be used cautiously as affording clues to possible future human behavior. And every teacher of history should ponder thoughtfully and humbly, if not prayerfully, the paragraph on pages 274-75 that indicates the swiftness with which changes in the current scene may relegate a "dominant theme" to the historical ashcan, and elevate another to a temporary eminence.

But even so excellent a book as *Understanding History* is not without minor blemishes. More careful proofreading might have avoided turning Lord Acton into "Action" (p. 258), and putting strange thoughts into the mind of Herodotus by substituting "need" for "meed" (p. 213). An index of names, even with an analytical table of contents, is not an adequate substitute for a good index. And Professor Gottschalk, in his horror of what he chooses to consider pedantic footnotes, has failed to offer the inquiring beginner adequate bibliographical "leads" to more detailed works on historical method.

Professor Gottschalk's latest book can be recommended without reservation to all teachers of history and of the social studies; they should "lose no time in reading this book," in the first and third senses of that ambiguous phrase as interpreted on page 134 of *Understanding History*. Here is a work which those college teachers who are interested in teaching their students to read history critically can use without undue diversion of time and effort from the existing content of their courses. Teachers of younger students will also find suggestions which, properly adapted and implemented, will help their students to become more critical judges of whatever they read or hear. In our age of mass communication and propaganda the social studies



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can make no greater contribution than this to develop citizens who may become sound judges of public policy and of public men. And to this objective Professor Gottschalk's little book will make a sound and significant contribution.

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

The University of Chicago and Shimer College

●  
THE NEW NATION. By Merrill Jensen. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950. xviii + 434 + xi p. \$5.00.

As every school boy knows, the United States has experienced three governments: first, by a *de facto* regime under a "Congress" composed of representatives of various colonies of the "original" thirteen; secondly, after 1781, by a "Confederation" congress with a nominal presidency, elected annually; thirdly, after 1789, through a constitutionally contrived system of checks and balances, under a quadrennial executive and a bicameral law-making body. However, most secondary school textbooks, after brief attention to the Revolutionary period and the "Constitutional Convention," turn directly to this third and last administration. This often is accompanied by the smug assertion that the

first fifteen years of the republic represented only a process of trial and error—at best "a critical era," which, following the great convention, had better be forgotten as only a poor relation.

Merrill Jensen, professor of history at the University of Wisconsin, and author of *The Articles of Confederation* and many monographs in the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, attempts to see justice done to these early years. Moreover, his *New Nation*, heralded as "The Definitive Account of the First Years of the United States," in a fair way begins to live up to this extravagant claim. Yet it is very probable that Professor Jensen would be the first to admit that there is much ground to be broken before this title is truly to be deserved; he indicates as much in the preface and points to additional study now being done in this area.

Thus, like others before him, although with a surer touch, he labors mightily to undo the "sin of Jonathan Fiske," an aberration which has plagued American history for many years. For Fiske, as is now generally recognized, popularized the partisan polemics of the "Federalists" into what became well nigh a canon of United States history. His legends, moreover, were repeated verbatim in high school and lower di-

vision college texts until it is a rare student who will turn a critical eye on the period of the confederation. Even a reputable series of films has adapted for secondary school teaching the garish simplicity of Daniel Shays and his pitchforks, the fallacies of the funny-money folk of Rhode Island, and the quaint border regulation of the colonies. All this, mind you, as though there was no agrarianism in 1837, 1893, and 1933, and that the truck and cigarette wars of 1951 do not exist.

Jensen shows such an interpretation of the confederation to be little more than fantasy. Although his "history" does not deal with a conventional political account of the period and is not centered on specific events but on underlying trends, he cites three instances in which the Confederation Congress signally succeeded and stamped itself as the real architect of the "new nation." These were (a) the creation of a permanent secretariat and civil service, an agency taken over bodily by the "Patriots of 1787"; (b) the establishment of the colonial policy of the United States through the great land ordinances; and (c) the development of a real American nationalism during the years so usually associated with inter-commonwealth strife and pitiable piddling with trade and the treasury.

For high schools, this reviewer would particularly like to recommend Part II, called by Jensen "The Fruits of Independence." Here, indeed, is a moving story of the new nation; a little more on the Websters, Noah and Pelatiah, needed perhaps but, nevertheless, full of the "Spirit of the New Nation," to use the author's figure. Part V, likewise, "The Achievements of the Confederation," can be used with profit.

Let us hope that Professor Jensen's thesis that the early government of the United States was not an ephemera, but as real a part of our history as that under the second constitution, will soon be found in high school textbooks. One still may disagree as to whether the acts of 1787 constituted evolution or revolution—none, after reading *The New Nation*, can maintain that this was devolution. Indeed, the conclusion forbids this verdict: "Thus . . . the writing and ratification of the Constitution of 1787 is the beginning of a new chapter, not the ending of an old one, in the book of American history" (p. 421).

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Willamette University  
Salem, Oregon

## NEGRO BOOKS

Eppse, Merl R.: "A Guide to the Study of the Negro in American History." An integrated outline of valuable material on the Negro from Africa to the present. Over six hundred carefully selected references properly placed at each end of twelve topics. Authoritative guide for High School, College and inter-racial group study.

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Buck. (8Vo.) 410 pp. 1949 ..... \$2.50

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SOVIET IMPERIALISM. By Ernest Day Carmen. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1950. 175 p. \$3.25.

What are the major techniques of Soviet imperialism? To answer this question Carmen gives a rapid account of Russian expansion since 1939. Although essentially a clipping job, and over a year out of date when published, *Soviet Imperialism* is yet a useful little book of value to teachers who do not have time for reading more elaborate studies.

Carmen submits that the basic prop of Soviet expansion has been the Red Army, and he emphasizes the role that the Soviet nationalities policy has played in bringing under Russian control 24,355,500 non-Russian people. While the former point has been often made, the latter has still not been adequately treated in the United States. It is not generally realized, for example, that several hundred thousand Koreans are citizens of the Soviet Union (now living in the Central Asian republics of Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan after being moved in the 30's from the Maritime Provinces around Vladivostock) and that these Soviet Koreans played an important part in the organization of the North Korean "Peoples' Republic." Similarly there are groups

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of Finns, Kurds, Mongols, Armenians, etc., living in national communities within the Soviet Union who can serve as the springboard for expansion into Finland, Iran, Mongolia, and Turkey. The U.S.S.R. never has to cultivate "collaborators," for it brings them along with its army. Carmen nowhere mentions the Soviet Koreans, but he does discuss the other important groups. He points out the fact that this technique is far more useful in Asia, where the Russian standard of living is higher than that of her neighbors, than in Europe, where Russian standards are considered low.

There is one outstanding gap in this study. Carmen does not discuss the part that the various communist parties play in Soviet expansion. He does not even mention the Czechoslovak coup—an omission that seems inexcusable in a book appearing in 1950. In short, although *Soviet Imperialism* contributes little that is new to serious students of Soviet affairs, it may be quite useful to the classroom teacher in search of a concise treatment of Soviet expansion.

JOHN P. ROCHE

Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.

**RUXTON OF THE ROCKIES.** Collected by Clyde and Mae Reed Porter. Edited by LeRoy R. Hafen. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1950. xxii + 325 p. \$5.00.

This unusual volume contains information previously published together with the addition of an unusual "find" of material in England. In 1947, nearly a century after Ruxton's death, Mrs. Porter discovered a member of his family living in Castle Hill, England. From this person she obtained a miniature of the young adventurer, medals received from Queen Isabella II, a notebook filled with descriptions of soldiering in Spain and Canada, and a memorial scrapbook kept by Ruxton's mother.

The latter contained some of the installments of material that were published prior to the appearance of this present book, together with unpublished manuscripts written about Spain, Canada, and Ruxton's boyhood. Later on other photographs, letters, notes on the Mexican and African adventures, sketches and personal effects of Ruxton were sent to the Porters from England.

All of this material has been woven into a most fascinating book. The introduction describes the author's successful search for new materials. Ruxton's own words tell most of the story. He talks of his youth, of his travels, and of his soldiering in Spain from the age of thirteen to seventeen. His stay in Ireland and in Upper Canada from 1841 to 1844 abound in colorful description and anecdote. In 1844-45 he made two trips to Africa, one to the northern part of the continent and one to South Africa. The pages that tell of these trips abound with descriptions of wild life, geography, people and places.

In 1846 Ruxton headed for Mexico. He traveled extensively in northern Mexico, and then started up the Rio Grande, through the land of the Pueblos, into upper Arkansas. Indian tribes, big game, pioneer life—all the adventure and glamor of the West come to life under Ruxton's pen.

This is an extremely readable book. Ruxton knew how to use detail to the extent that the reader seems to travel with him, see what he saw, and experience his emotions. That a man of the 1830's and 1840's could travel so widely in fourteen years seems almost impossible.

This book has two real values for the social studies teacher. First of all it will capture the interest of young people and thus introduce them to an earlier and different period. The second value is from the research angle. Few books highlight the labor and thrill of hunting



down material and reconstructing the past as does the present one. The Porters' search for new materials about this young man of more than a century ago is a fascinating story in itself.

MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN

Cortland, New York

# TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

Third edition. By Edgar Bruce Wesley. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1950. xiv + 594 p. \$4.00.

Professor Wesley's volume in the teaching of the social studies is well known to almost half a generation of social studies teachers. Consequently, there may be some question as to the need for a review merely because of the appearance of a third edition. It requires little more than a cursory examination of the new edition, however, to see some justification for another appraisal. One will observe at the outset a differentiation from the two earlier editions in that the phrase "in high schools" has been added to the title. While the first two editions were generally regarded as secondary education texts, they did include materials related to the social studies in the elementary school. The third edition, thus, is more clearly and sharply defined in terms of purpose. In the Preface the author indicates under eight headings the important changes that have been made. The structure of the volume has undergone considerable reorganization and many of the chapters bear changed headings. There are two completely new chapters, one dealing with adolescent development, the other with the development of concepts and generalizations. Both, incidentally, are useful and logical additions. At the same time materials in the second edition constituting separate chapters on the evolution of social studies courses, democratic teaching and learning, notebooks and workbooks, and teaching devices have been merged with other chapters or have been eliminated altogether. It is evident that every chapter in the new edition has undergone alteration to some degree. In five of the chapters, according to the author's estimate, the new material exceeds 70 percent of the content. Needless to say, the lists of annotated references at the end of each chapter have been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. A notable change in the Appendix is the elimination of a chapter on the social sciences and the inclusion of a "Glossary of Social Studies Terms."

The new edition retains the flavor of its pred-

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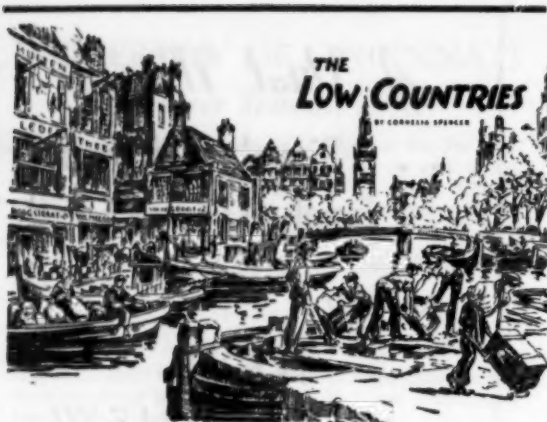
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ecessors, despite the considerable number of changes that have been outlined. At no point does the discussion lapse into the use of the kind of professional jargon that is all too frequently employed by some writers who apparently regard such practice as a mark of erudition and a design to impress their professional associates. This is clearly a book for college students and social studies teachers, and they can read it with understanding. On this score alone it achieves considerable stature within the literature of education. Its value as a textbook is further enhanced by the lists of annotated references which broaden for students the scope of the field of social education.

The book will be greeted with mixed reactions. It is quite evidently the product of one who has carefully thought through his position and is willing to state it clearly and affirmatively. And, while it is in no sense a polemic, even in those controversial areas where the author is careful to list the pros and cons of the issue, one senses that he can determine the author's views on the subject at hand. In general curriculum terms, there are those who will regard the approach to the social studies as centered too strongly on the side of the traditional subjects

organizations. They will wish for a more adequate and probably more sympathetic discussion of core-type programs in the area of social living, perhaps regarding the author's mounting interest in the teaching of contemporary affairs as merely a hesitant step in the right direction. Other, somewhat more specific, objections and questions may be raised. The treatment of social studies objectives is something less than helpful. One looks in vain for a clear discussion of the anticipated outcomes of social studies instruction viewed in terms of understandings, skills, and attitudes. There is also little stress on the need for viewing such outcomes in behavioral terms. The chapter dealing with the organization of learning materials is confusing. To use one example, units are listed as one of the four ways of organizing teaching materials, along with lessons, topics, and problems. But aren't topics and problems often developed through a unit form of organization? And, to make the question even more confusing, a chapter on the unit method is finally included much later in the text. In view of the author's own statement that "The unit has become the most popular form of organization in the social studies . . ." (p. 485), isn't it worthy of a more orderly and comprehensive treatment? There are other gaps which many would like filled. An account of teacher-pupil cooperation in planning and in evaluation is one. Emphasis on the leadership role of the social studies teacher in community affairs is another. A more adequate discussion of the relationship of the social studies with the total school program and with the community is still another. The new section on group dynamics (p. 220-24) is a happy addition. One wonders, however, why some relationship is not established with the material on group discussion (p. 433-36) and, even more important, why material dealing with discussion methods is placed in the same chapter with question and answer procedures. It is difficult enough to develop an understanding of the true nature and purpose of group discussion without having to combat the tendency to return to the assign-study-recite procedure with which students are so familiar and which the questions and answers somehow suggest. Grade placement is ever a problem, and the author cannot escape the temptation to tackle it anew. He must be commended for his efforts, but it is doubtful if the scheme he offers (p. 203) will be of much benefit to teachers or curriculum makers.

It might be well, in view of the above

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critique, to mention that this reviewer has used nothing but the various editions of the Wesley book as a text in first classes in the teaching of the social studies for at least a decade, including a recent excursion through the third edition with a group of fifty-five college seniors and first-year graduate students. Until someone produces a better mousetrap, this will continue to be his choice.

**JACK ALLEN**

George Peabody College for Teachers

**SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTIONS.** By Maurice P. Moffatt. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. xv + 524 p. \$4.25.

"The teaching of the social studies in the secondary schools in the United States has been projected to a position of prime importance by a series of economic, political, and social events in the twentieth century." Believing this Dr. Moffatt has kept in mind, throughout this book, "the practical as well as theoretical concepts involved in the teaching of social studies."

Dr. Moffatt has had two decades of teaching and supervising in the activities of the social studies field, and in this book has pointed up

the pertinent areas to be stressed for those who are teaching the special methods in the social studies.

The book is a combination of general methods and special methods indicating the emphases for all teachers as well as those in the social studies. "Since some confusion exists between the terms 'Social Science' and 'Social Studies' an analysis of terms is presented. A clarification of "the purely social sciences, the semi-social sciences, and the sciences with social implications" then ensues.

A chapter is devoted to the social studies laboratory and how to achieve the laboratory environment. A review of teaching methods and modern teaching procedures is touched upon by way of refreshing one's previous knowledge. Some of the social studies disciplines are given more definitive treatment with emphasis upon their importance in the curriculum, their objectives, and various procedures for presentation. Teaching aids, the planning and organization of materials, and techniques of evaluation are brought to our awareness again and an unusually interesting section is devoted to the "Social Studies Teacher and the Library."

One of the great strengths of the book is the



chapter dealing with the prospective teacher both as a student teacher and as a beginning teacher. This treatment is continued in the closing section of the book "Supervision in the Social Studies."

*Social Studies Instruction* covers a wide range of material and consequently refers but briefly to areas usually given in detail. Some courses of study, check lists, and other aids are presented without an attempt to be exhaustive.

As a book for the teachers of the special methods in the social studies the reviewer agrees with the author, that "the materials and thinking in the social studies field have been drawn upon extensively in the writing of this text and it is felt that all will profit by its use" (p. viii).

ANABEL SOBER

New York University

TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. By Ralph C. Preston. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1950. xiv + 337 p. \$3.00.

This book affords an insight into the problems and values of social studies teaching and social education which renders it of particular value to teachers, both in service and in training. As a handbook, teachers will welcome its assistance not only as a guide to a practical, effectively organized program of work, but as a resource to aids, devices, and sources of pertinent and supplementary information. Students in training will appreciate the many graphic applications of theory and principles as they support and illustrate a sound philosophy of social studies teaching. While the purposes and aims of the social studies need more detailed clarification for the beginning student, this text makes the social studies unit a live, natural method and classroom teaching becomes a vivid, purposeful process in its pages.

The organization and presentation of material are at once simple, clear, and logical, yet indicative of the complexities of long-range planning that is so necessary if the social studies program is to be an effective, valuable experience for elementary school children. It is unique in its detailed treatment of application and illustration of methods and techniques. Furthermore, it supports its philosophy with references to recent research data as few social studies texts do.

Those chapters devoted to the analysis of the unit method and the suggestions for creating and developing varied types of units are especially forceful and practical.

Recognition and consideration for the needs of children serve as basic guides to the selection and use of materials and activities of the social studies program as presented herein. The author has at once emphasized the details of a practical program without sacrificing the essential ideals of a sound theory. Presumably, the attention given to certain skills and activities—as opposed to a more limited treatment of others—is justified in the principle that they are strictly and peculiarly a part of the social studies program.

The author's regard for the ordinary classroom rather than the ideal influences and enhances his writing as it is concerned with the daily teaching procedures.

In accordance with the author's position, as stated in the preface, this book has indeed accomplished its purpose of showing "how the content of elementary-school social studies can be substantial without doing violence to the basic inclinations of childhood. . . ." He points the way to a clear, fresh, and meaningful approach to that socially significant program which is so vital for improvement in the quality of classroom curriculum.

WILLIAM L. EARLEY, JR.

Boston University

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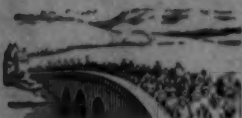
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